

T H E
CRITICAL REVIEW.

For S E P T E M B E R, 1787.

*Gulielmi Bellendeni Magistri Supplicum Libellorum Augusti Regis
Magnæ Britanniae, &c. De Statu Libri tres. Editio Secunda
longe emendatior. 8vo. 12s. Deighton.*

THAT the learned and elegant writer of these treatises should now be so little known, even to scholars, is a circumstance which, while it raises our admiration, should humble our literary pride. It may repress the arrogance, though it should not check the honest ambition, of an author to reflect, that neither the most accurate and extensive reading, the deepest thinking, nor the classical purity of language, can always preserve the merit, or even the name of their possessor, in the memory of the succeeding generation; and that, in the present instance in particular, the cloud which has long rested on the fame of Bellendenus, gathered round him, notwithstanding the brilliancy of his literary character, aided as it was by the splendour of office and the glare of royal patronage.

Bellendenus was master of the pleas in the reign of James the First. By the munificence of this monarch, who was himself a scholar as well as the patron of scholars, he was enabled to live at Paris in a state of honourable affluence and ease. Here, in the year 1608, he first published the *Ciceronis Princeps, rationes et consilia bene gerendi firmandique imperii; ex iis repetita, quæ ex Ciceronianis defluxerunt fontibus, &c.*—We do not know that it is in our power to point out any treatise, whether ancient or modern, which abounds with finer instructions for the political conduct of a prince, or with more salutary precepts for the regulation of his private life. Nor would we be thought to depreciate the merits of the most truly illustrious, though not the most celebrated of the Roman emperors, when we assert that a character formed on this model might be opposed, without injustice, even to the boasted virtues of a Titus or an Antoninus. In the *Ciceronis Princeps* we do not indeed meet with the dark and dangerous doctrines of Mande-

VOL. LXIV. Sept. 1787.

M ville,

ville, or the acute but mischievous politics of Machiavel; yet our approbation is extorted by those maxims of liberal and manly policy, which tend to fix the security of government on its broadest and firmest foundation, on the mutual happiness of prince and people.

To this first edition of the *Ciceronis Princeps* was prefixed a short, but sensible treatise, *De Processu et Scriptoribus rei Politicæ*.

The first edition of the *Ciceronis Consul, Senator, Senatusque Romanus*, was published in 1612. This is the longest of the three treatises, and, if comparison can be admitted, the most excellent. The regulations which it describes, and the political doctrines it establishes, are particularly useful in every mixt government. They are a powerful check on hazardous innovation in the laws and constitution of a country; and are admirably calculated to preserve the regularity, the efficacy, and the dignity of government. This book contains fifty-six chapters. It treats of the institution of the consulship, the original extent and gradual diminution of its authority, and the qualifications necessary to the proper discharge of the consular office, in peace and war. It describes the origin and constitution of the Roman senate; its authority in civil and religious affairs; and the various matters which were subject to its cognizance. In fine, the author paints in strong colours the dignity of the Roman senator. He enumerates the various and splendid attainments necessary to support the character; and marks out the line of conduct which he ought to pursue in different situations of the republic, amidst the turbulence of popular insurrections, or under the usurpation of tyrannical authority.

These two books were afterwards re-published in 1616; and to them was added the Treatise on the Religion, Politics, and Literature of the ancient World. This work is replete with information from Josephus, Eusebius, Aristotle, Plato, Clemens Alexandrinus, and Cicero. We may add, that it is distinguished not only by various and extensive erudition, but by deep and philosophical reflection. In the arrangement of the different books the editor has preserved the order of the first edition of Bellendenus, the title-page of which we shall therefore transcribe.

“ Gulielmi Bellendeni Magistri Supplicum Libellorum Augusti Regis Magnæ Britannæ, &c. De Statu Libri tres. 1. De statu prisci orbis in Religione, Re politica et Litteris. 2. Ciceronis Princeps, sive de Statu Principis et Imperii. 3. Ciceronis Consul, Senator, Senatusque Romanus, sive de Statu Reip. et Urbis imperantis Orbi. Primus, nunc primum editus: cæteri,

cæteri, cum tractatu de Processu et Scriptoribus Rei politicæ, ab auctore aucti et illustrati. Parisiis, &c. M.DC.XVI”.

Our author's unfinished work, *De tribus Luminibus*, is already known to some collectors of scarce books, and a few inquisitive frequenters of public libraries. It contains the opinions of Cicero, collected from different parts of his works, and expressed with the addition only of connecting sentences, entirely in his own words. Death prevented Bellendenus from proceeding to the two remaining luminaries, who, according to the best information the editor has been able to procure, were to have been Seneca and the elder Pliny. Whatever reason we may have to regret the unfinished state of this work, we are compelled to lament the injury offered to its author by the celebrated biographer of Cicero. Middleton has long been suspected of owing some of his information to this valuable synopsis. But, from our editor's representation, he stands clearly convicted of plagiarism and ingratitude; of having taken not only much of his matter, but even his method and arrangement from Bellendenus; and of omitting his name in the list of writers whom he had consulted, with the selfish and illiberal design of shining in borrowed plumage. It might be imagined, that a writer so well acquainted as our editor with the merit of his author, would have recorded this disgraceful circumstance in terms of the strongest indignation; nor would it have been altogether unpardonable, if his attachment to an injured favourite had rendered him less sensible to the real excellencies of Dr. Middleton. But our editor needs not this apology. With the utmost tenderness and candour he professes, and indeed evinces an unwillingness to adopt the language of reproof, even where justice requires it: and so far is he from going out of his way to condemn Middleton as a sceptic and free-thinker, that he even endeavours to forget his offence towards Bellendenus, by weighing his accomplishments as a scholar against the thefts of the plagiarist, and the ingratitude of the man. His tenderness in this respect seems carried to excess: but the following passage has other beauties besides those which consist in the candour and moderation of the sentiments; for we know not, that even the writings of Tully exhibit periods more harmonious, or that the human ear has hitherto been gratified with a more enchanting sweetness of language.

‘Litteræ fuerunt Middletono, non vulgares hæ et quotidianæ, sed uberrimæ et maximè exquisitæ. Fuit iudicium subtile limatúmque. Teretes et religiosæ fuerunt aures. Stylus est ejus ita purus ac suavis, ita salebris sine ullis profluens quiddam et canorum habet, numeros ut videatur complecti, quales in alio quopiam, præter Addisonum, frustra quænaveris. Animum

fuisse ejusdem parùm candidum ac sincerum, id verò, fateor invitus, dolens, coactus.*

The editor informs us that the present edition is, in many instances, more correct than that which was published by Bellendenus himself. The extreme scarcity of the work deprives us of an opportunity of investigating this point, since we understand that only three complete copies are known to exist in the kingdom; and of either of these we have never been fortunate enough to obtain an inspection. In our copy there are some additional corrigenda*, which, we are told, are not in some of the copies first sold, but are left with the bookseller for the use of the purchasers.

We have been thus minute in our account of the work itself, in order to discharge our duty to the public, by announcing the value as well as the recovery of a long-lost treasure; to pay a debt of justice to the memory of Bellendenus, and to evince the indisputable claim of the editor to the thanks of the learned world. Were it not for one circumstance, we should consider the suppression of his name as a fraud, which every man of letters and sensibility would anxiously deprecate; that fraud we mean which originates sometimes in false modesty, sometimes in false pride; and, by concealing our benefactor, conceals at the same time the object of our admiration and of our gratitude. Unfortunately, however, the editor of Bellendenus has filled the greater part of a very long Preface with disquisitions on modern politics, little connected with the work of his author, and written in the most vehement language of party-declaration. This circumstance may have rendered it prudent to conceal his name, and we have only ventured to guess at it, in obscure hints.

The three treatises are respectively dedicated by the editor to Mr. Burke, lord North, and Mr. Fox; whom, in a fanciful allusion to the posthumous work of Bellendenus, he distinguishes by the appellation of the Three English Luminaries. The Dedications, if allowance be made for political prejudices, are properly appropriate, and in a warm style of panegyric: but in the Preface, all the powers of the editor seem exhausted on the characters of these favourites, and on that of Mr. Sheridan. The following elegant compliment to Mr. Burke is among those which are best merited.

* The Errata incline us to suspect, what indeed we have heard, that the editor, however versed he may be in the *Calligraphia Græca* of Pesselius, does not excel in *English Calligraphy*; and that he is a better corrector of readings in ancient manuscripts, than of his own productions from a modern press. These circumstances have induced some critics to ascribe the Preface to a celebrated scholar, whose English compositions are marked by fine writing and bad printing.

‘ In quo autem homine, cū illa, quæ jucunda et grata, tum etiam illa, quæ mirabilia sunt in virtute, elucet, ejus de moribus hoc solum dicere necesse habeo, semper innocentiam Burkii et integritatem singularem fuisse, vitæque rationem justissimè ab aliis reposcere eum, qui reddere non reformidet suæ.’

The character of lord North is written with warmth; and the palliation of the American war, the defence of Mr. Fox’s moral character, and of the coalition, though they do not impress conviction, command our admiration. The history of ancient and modern rhetoric affords no instance of a doubtful cause more ably supported, of arguments more subtle and more plausible, or of eloquence more impetuous and more fascinating. The eulogy on Mr. Sheridan possesses the elegance, without the servility, of Pliny’s panegyric on Trajan. It is distinguished by nice discrimination of criticism, by an ardent glow of approbation, by an admirable purity of diction.

The characters of the ministerial party are also drawn at length, and in a mingled style of anger and of wit; of anger, which sometimes rises almost to fury; and of wit, occasionally delicate and gentle, often personal and sarcastic, and sometimes harsh and intemperate. Many of the members of administration, who have seats in the lower house, are satyrized by name; though Mr. Pitt, whose portrait, as may be imagined, is laboured with no friendly hand, is honoured with the title of *ὁ δαίμων*. The peers who fall under the lash of our editor are distinguished by Grecian and Roman names; the successful application of which will be highly gratifying even to those scholars who, like us, do not adopt his political opinions. Indeed he never shines more than when he applies the history, the biography, and the poetry of Greece and Rome to the circumstances of modern times, and to the delineation of modern characters. The quotation from Paterculus, on the subject of Mr. Burke’s unpopularity, the close of the character of Novius, and the apposite passage of Aristophanes (p. 21.), where he reprobates the commercial treaty, are passages which we should transcribe, were there not so many striking instances of the same felicity of allusion, that selection would be a difficult task. For the same reason, we wish not to multiply specimens of any part of the Preface; nor would we be thought to produce the following on any other account than as a short example of that metaphorical style which gives life to description, and asperity to invective.

‘ Quatuor hosce viros, h. e. Dosona, Novium, Miso-Themistoclem et Clodium, dixi quare non ita vehementer reformi-dandos esse statuerim. Verū enimverò qui cuniculis et am-

bagibus et susurris moliantur omnia : qui in ipsis penetralibus imperii nidulos sibi ponunt, tanquam speculatores miseriarum omnium et discordiarum : qui consilia sua huc atque illuc torquent et flectunt ad tempus : qui rempublicam aut infirmam labefaciunt, aut validam vigentemque arrodunt : qui juvenes in pulverem et Solem, vita ex umbratili proripientes sese, tollunt in altum, ut lapsu eisdem graviori præcipites agant : Eorum profectò ab insidiis nihil non extimesco.*

We are sorry that the editor of this work should have compelled us to express our disapprobation of his personal and party prejudices ; and our regret is not a little increased when we observe, even amidst the violence of his political antipathies, a liberal spirit of philanthropy, an active zeal for the general interests of humanity, and a degree of honest enthusiasm, which might be directed to nobler ends. His attainments, as a scholar, are the objects of our astonishment and veneration. His Latinity is so striking, that, to a reader of taste, it supplies perhaps a better vindication of the use and importance of the Latin language than all the volumes to which the controversy has given birth. The defenders of modern Latin need not now, we think, repeat the arguments of Folieta* and Mosheim ; though the appearance of this very singular publication may lead him into some reflections on the comparative merit of several Englishmen, whose Latinity, as it is the growth of the present age, is an interesting subject of criticism.

The first praise for Latin composition is due to Lowth, for fullness, splendour, and variety ; though an invidious scrutiny might possibly detect more inaccuracies in his truly valuable Lectures, than their established reputation would permit a common reader to expect. Sir William Jones is elegant, harmonious, and exact ; but deficient, perhaps, in strength. Perspicuity, precision, and grace, characterize Dr. Lawrence and Dr. Barton. Energy marks the compositions of Dr. Barford : in those of sir George Baker, we admire the extensive scholar, and the correct critic ; but we sometimes see a little embarrassment in the structure of his sentences, and a little ostentation in the choice of his phrase. In characterizing our author we shall say of his Latin, that it is what Tully calls, in his Brutus, the *unèior et splendidior consuetudo scribendi*. With all the ardour and impetuosity of the late Dr. Burton, he has, what that writer wanted, grace and uniformity. In Dr. Burton, we observe too prominent an affectation of phraseology : there

* See the three books of Ubertus Folieta *de Linguae Latinae usu et præstantia*, and Mosheim's Preface to his edition of Folieta, printed at Hamburg, in the year 1723.

is also a quaintness in the use of some particular phrases. The writers of the different ages, whom he imitates, do not coalesce; and, upon the whole, it is difficult to say that he has any style. But our editor pursues steadily one purpose; he writes with one and the same spirit; and, though his expressions are taken from orators, as Cicero and Quintilian; from historians, as Livy, Tacitus, and Paterculus; from poets, as Horace, Virgil, Terence, Persius, and Juvenal; yet he subdues and disciplines their words, animates them with his own spirit, accommodates them to his own purpose, and with peculiar felicity combines uniformity with variety. We may say of him, as he says of Mr. Fox, *Unus fit quidem sonus totius orationis*.—A modern writer of Latin is compelled to collect his phraseology from different quarters; his erudition enables him to select the most apposite phrases, and his taste directs him to melt them into one common mass. Our editor refers for every marked expression to the writer from whom he takes it. This may be invidiously construed into an ostentatious display of his erudition; but, in our opinion, he proves his taste and accuracy, he vindicates his Latinity, he opens the force of his allusions, and he conforms, as probably he meant to do, to the example of Bellendenus, who, in his *Ciceronis Consul*, refers to the different writers whom he quotes. Our editor indeed resembles Bellendenus in other respects. As classical scholars, their taste appears congenial: with the works of Cicero in particular, they are both critically familiar: they both hold a distinguished rank among the modern writers of Latin: and of the editor's Preface, as well as of the work itself, we may observe, *Nihil reperiri potest quod non summâ sit elaboratum industriâ, et summo ingenio perfectum*.

A Dissertation on the Origin and Progress of the Scythians or Goths. By John Pinkerton. 8vo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Nicol.

WE have read this Dissertation with great attention, and have derived much information and pleasure from it: information, somewhat debased by the author's peculiar opinions on some collateral subjects; and pleasure, a little diminished by the loose manner in which his argument is sometimes treated. We have not been able to follow him in all his authorities; but from what we have seen of the fidelity of his quotations, we think that we have no reason to suspect those which we have not examined. So much was necessary to say of a work which contains sentiments very repugnant to those of many modern writers: we shall now proceed to give an analysis of it.

Mr. Pinkerton, in his Enquiry into the History of Scotland, previous to the Year 1056, found that the Caledonii or Picti, the ancient inhabitants, came from German Scythia or Scandinavia, and that the Scythians proceeded from Little or Ancient Scythia, on the Euxine. This, however, was only their first step from their original habitations, the modern Persia, from whence they seem to have proceeded in numerous hordes, westward, surrounded the Euxine, peopled Germany, Italy, Gaul, the countries bordering on the Baltic, part of Britain and Ireland. In their progress, they pressed on the Celtæ, the aboriginal inhabitants, and by force, or other means, drove them to the western coasts of Britain and Ireland, from whence they seem to have occupied the coasts of Brittany. The author, though a Scotchman, is not partial to the Highlanders: he upbraids them with the name of Celts, barbarous inhabitants of a country, whose most fertile portions they could not defend, and who meanly submitted to retire when they ought to have contended. The works of the Celts are of course treated with much contempt; and, in his warmest resentment against Mr. Macpherson, whom he accuses of poisoning the sources of history, with a design of destroying the evidences which may result from its streams, he can think of no more opprobrious term than that of a Celt.

The task of supporting a system so different from the common ones, was, as the author asserts, an arduous one: he has read much, and to great advantage; and though fastidious criticism may reject some of his arguments, and nice observers may object to his etymological researches, when he has so peremptorily rejected etymology as a means of enquiry, we think that he has established his opinion on facts which cannot be properly disputed; on the authority of those who could not easily have been misled; and on a comparison of historians which mutually illustrate, and must have been a mutual check on each other, if their accounts had not been well-founded. He truly observes that we have copied errors, without enquiring into the source of the various relations of authors; and have accumulated mistakes, merely to avoid the trouble of investigation.

When the Goths appeared on the frontiers of the Roman empire; when, after successful contests, they succeeded in conquering Rome, they seemed to come from the North; and to the North future historians applied for the origin of these numerous hordes who were destined to rule the world. Each northern historian has dignified either his own country, or the sovereign whom he wished to flatter. Hence Cluverius drew them from Pomerelia, and Grotius from Sweden, the kingdom

dom of his patroness; while every author has followed them in the chief part of their story, and differed only in deriving them from this or that country, while they have uniformly supposed them to have swarmed from what has been called the *Officina Gentium*, the northern parts of Europe.

Mr. Pinkerton defends not only the country but the manners of the Goths. He observes that their enemies have been their historians; but that the moderation, the justice, and the humanity of their kings, and their government, have been eminently conspicuous. They prohibited only their kings from being instructed in literature, lest it might lessen that military ardor by which they hoped still farther to extend their dominions. In fact it appears that the most ignorant of their kings were the best, and the most philosophical one was the most inactive, and unequal to the office of government.

The great outline of our author's work is the following. There seems to have been three great nations who have appeared as conquerors in, or on the confines of, Europe; the Goths, the Sarmatians, and the Huns. The Scythians or Goths came from Persia; and, in the tract which we have described, over-ran Europe, which they found inhabited by a barbarous people, who bore the same relation to the conquerors as the aborigines of America did to the Europeans who first discovered it. These barbarians were the Celts, whom we have described, and the Iberi of Spain, who came from Africa. The Sarmatians were situated on the north-east: they seem to have united with the *Basternæ*, a Gothic nation, and to have borrowed some of their manners, and to have encroached alike on the Gothic territories. These are the origin of the present inhabitants of Russia and of Poland. The third nation are the Huns, at present the Tartars, and their situation is sufficiently known. We must now be more particular.

The First Part of the work is designed to prove the identity of the Scythians, the *Getæ*, and Goths—to show that, instead of migrating from Scandinavia to Asia, as has been supposed, they really proceeded from Asia into Europe; and to trace, so far as the imperfect accounts which remain will permit, their first and subsequent progresses. From this account our author supposes that the Goths penetrated very early into the countries on the south of the Euxine, and from thence to Greece, the parent of the *Hetrurians* and the *Latians*. These colonies, situated in fertile climates, after a long series of years were enervated by luxury and inaction; the *Grecians* yielded to the inhabitants of Rome, who, in their turn, fell a prey to other colonies of their own nation, the more hardy and warlike Goths of the North.

We

We have already observed, that Mr. Pinkerton supports his opinions with great strength of argument, and authorities of considerable weight. In his division of the three great tribes already mentioned, he is supported by the natural history of men, by the almost entire difference of their personal appearance, their customs and language. He is not equally well supported in his description of the Celts; and indeed his prejudices against the Highlanders, and their productions, are very apparent; for never did a Guelph more cordially hate a Gibeline, than our Lowland Scot does the Celts of the Highlands. But if we examine the persons as natural historians, their talents as politicians, or their customs as philosophers, we shall not be easily able to ascertain our author's opinion of their being a distinct race: much less that their talents are of that inferior kind which he attributes to the Celts. But it is time to select a specimen of our author's arguments, and we shall choose that part of his work where he endeavours to prove that their original seat was in that district which the moderns call Persia, and that it extended from Egypt to the Ganges; from the Persian gulf and Indian sea to the Caspian.

'That the Scythians originated from Asia, can be proved by many authorities, even the least of them superior to that of Jornandes.

'1. Trogus Pompeius, in the reign of Augustus, with sedulous diligence and great ability, compiled an universal history, afterward in the reign of Antoninus Pius, abstracted by Justin, who dedicates his work to that prince. From Trogus, Justin tells us that the Scythians contended with the Egyptians, then esteemed the earliest of nations, for antiquity: and that Asia was conquered by them, and tributary to them, for no less a space than fifteen hundred years, before Ninus, founder of the Assyrian empire, put an end to the tribute.

'The ideas of the ancients concerning this first supreme empire were, as might be expected, very confused. Trogus and Justin say the Scythians conquered Vexores, king of Egypt, fifteen hundred years before the time of Ninus. Isaac Vossius, in his Notes on Justin, wonders that Trogus should say the Scythians conquered Sesostris; while Herodotus Dicæarchus, Diodorus Siculus, and others, say that Sesostris vanquished the Scythæ. Vossius did not see that Sesostris was out of all question; and that it is Vexores, whom Justin bears, as different a name, and person, from Sesostris, as can well be imagined. Vexores lived about 3660 years before Christ: Sesostris about 1480! But Vossius is not the only learned man who, from want of common discernment, has even confounded this first Scythic empire with an eruption of the Scythæ into Asia, about 1600 years after Ninus; while the great Scythic empire was terminated

nated by Ninus, after lasting more than 1500 years. In the works of the Lipsii, Scaligeri, Salmasii, Vossii, Grotii, one finds every thing but common sense, without which every thing is less than nothing. Trogus, who was in civil history what Pliny was in natural history, an indefatigable compiler of the whole knowledge that could be found in preceding authors, discovered this earliest empire, as time draws truth out of the well. The war of Sesostris against the Scythæ, about 1480 years before Christ, narrated by Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus, must by no means be confounded with events that happened 1500 years before Ninus, as Justin states, or 3660 years before Christ. From Justin it is apparent that the Scythians, fixt and resident in present Persia, perhaps 2000 years before Ninus, carried on a war against Vexores 1500 years before the time of Ninus; and, subduing the west of Asia, made it tributary, till Ninus delivered it, by establishing the Assyrian empire on the ruins of the Scythian.

These arguments are supported by some others, in our opinion, of inferior weight; but we decline selecting them, because they would render our article too long. We shall add our author's short recapitulation.

'We shall, he says, sum up this article by observing, 1. That we have sufficient authorities, direct and collateral, for the Scythian empire in present Persia being the first in the world; the Assyrian, generally reputed the first, only succeeding it. And it is believed no man will be so much the dupe of hypothesis as to suppose that the Scythians ascended from Scandinavia, and dropped down in the plains of Babylon; or, in opposition to Epiphanius Eusebius, and the Chronicon Paschale, to assert that even those first Scythæ were of Scandinavia; or, in other words, that Noah, and the first reputed inhabitants of the earth, came from Scandinavia 2. That Herodotus, Diodorus, and indeed all the writers who have occasion to mention the subject, down to the sixth century, when Jornandes, the first monastic historian wrote, and darkness, error and ignorance surrounded the world, are in direct opposition to Jornandes. These early writers of enlightened times, uniformly make the Scythæ pass from the south of Asia, up in a north-west direction, till they spread over all Europe; and to oppose the single testimony of Jornandes to such authorities, would be absurd beyond all absurdity. Grotius, who maintains it from a silly wish of honouring Sweden, has been forced totally to garble and alter it, by bringing those Goths from Scandinavia about 300 years before Christ, whom Jornandes brings thence about 4000 years before Christ. But this hypothesis is contradictory to all ancient accounts, as has been, and shall be shewn in the course of this tract; and deserves laughter, not refutation. Grotius is no authority at all; it is Jornandes who, from his antiquity, merits confutation from other authors, yet more ancient, and far better informed. Indeed,

deed, simply to ask by what special miracle Jornandes discovered a matter not only unknown to, but contradictory of, all the ancients, would be full confutation in such a case. He lived in no Augustan age, when science was at its height, but in all the darkness of ignorance: and he would not have even merited confutation, had he not misled so many.'

Mr. Pinkerton examines the several nations of antiquity, and attempts, with much apparent success, to ascertain their Scythic origin. But it is now time to give a short account of his Second Part.

The subject of this part is the extended Settlements of the Scythians or Goths over all Germany, and in Scandinavia. He shows that the Germans, the ancient Germans described by Tacitus, were not Celts, nor Sarmatians. He endeavours to prove that they were Scythians, from the testimony of ancient authors, the identity of their language, and the similarity of their manners. This point he has laboured with great zeal, and good success: he has indeed a host of antagonists; but is not he himself a host? We can give no proper specimen of his arguments, for they are closely compressed, and intimately connected. We shall prefer giving a fuller account of the fifth chapter, in which the progress of the Scythians into Scandinavia is particularly considered.

It is a new attempt to pursue the Scythians into Scandinavia. The origin of the Scandinavian Scythians, however, are supposed by Mr. Pinkerton to be the Basternæ, a vast race, whose habitations extended, in length, from the shores of the Baltic, the modern Prussia, to the Carpathian mountains, and the Danube; and in width, from the western bounds of the Vistula to the Chronus and Boristhenes. This nation was so considerable, that Strabo classes it with the Scythæ and Sarmatæ, as a distinct one; and he divides them into four lesser ones, of which he particularly mentions the Peukini, from the island Peuké, on the mouth of the Danube. The Basternæ, he says, migrated to the North, though Mr. Pinkerton supposes that some of them went into the Roman provinces, since, on their secession, the Sarmatæ are said to have occupied the western parts of the present kingdom of Poland. It seems more probable that the Sarmatæ pressed on the Basternæ, very evidently the least warlike tribe of the Scythians, and dispersed them to the North and the South.

'Let us now briefly consider the northern progress of the Sitones and Peukini, two grand Basternic divisions. Strabo, who wrote about twenty years after our æra, is certainly well-informed concerning the north of Germany, as the Greeks actually traded to Prussia for amber. In particular, the Estii
of

of present Prussia, from whose coasts the amber came, and where it is yet found in such quantities as to yield a large revenue, were in the confines of the Peukini and Sitones, or Basternic nations on the Baltic; so that the intelligence concerning countries so near that to which the Greeks traded, may be regarded as satisfactory. Now he tells us, book vii. p. 294. that "most think the Basternæ live beyond the Germans to the northward, others that there is only ocean." That the later opinion was false need not be told: but that the former was true, namely that the Basternæ possessed Scandinavia, is certain; for Tacitus, who was procurator of Gallia Belgica, and had of course all information relating to Germany, and its neighbourhood, as his admirable *Germania* shews, places the Sitones whom Strabo had mentioned as one of the three Basternic nations in present Sweden, and finds part of the Peukini on the opposite shore, while a part no doubt had passed into Scandinavia with the Sitones their brethren. And it is evident that the Sitones, whom Ptolemy puts on the south of the Baltic between the Viader and Vistula, were a part of the Sitones who remained, while the rest passed into Scandinavia: for migrations of nations were seldom, if ever, complete, a circumstance which enables us to trace their steps.

The Peukini in particular, being the largest and most eminent part of the Basternæ, as we may judge from their name being often extended to the whole of this vast people, leave such traces behind them from Thrace to the Baltic, that we can follow them step by step. This we are enabled to do from the geography of Ptolemy, who wrote about 150 years after Christ. As one or two Sarmatic tribes extended beyond the Chronus and Borysthenes, he improperly puts the Vistula as the boundary between the Germans, and Sarmatæ; though Tacitus, who wrote about fifty years before, had specially mentioned German nations beyond the Vistula, and the vast people of Peukini or Basternæ in particular, whom Pliny puts as one-fifth part of the Germans. But Ptolemy living at the great distance of Alexandria in Egypt, and probably not even understanding Latin; seems never to have read either Pliny or Tacitus; but puts his places according to the maps and itineraries of the generals, and to the Greek geographers. From the latter in particular, who drew from the merchants of amber good intelligence as to the present rout, the information seems derived which is to be found in his chapter of *Sarmatia Europæa*. In his time, a part of the Peukini still possessed their original settlement in Peuké; while we find another part far north of the Tyras, and above the Getæ: and the Πευκινία ὄρη, or Peukinian mountains of Ptolemy are, as Cluverius justly observes, on the south-west of present Prussia, near the head of the river Bog; that is within about sixty miles of the Baltic sea. Ptolemy places the Peukini on the north of the Basternæ: so that of all the Basternæ they were the nearest to the Baltic. And that the Peukini ac-
tually

ually reached to the Baltic, we know from Tacitus, who, in the end of his *Germania*, ranges them with the Venedi and Fenni, whom Ptolemy places near the Vistula upon the Baltic. Tacitus also puts the Venedi between the Peukini and Fenni, so that the Peukini must have been on the shore of the Baltic, on the east side of the mouth of the Vistula, or in present Prussia: from which they extended south to their Basternic brethren in the western part of present Hungary: a tract about 400 miles long, and from 100 to 150 broad. With so large possessions it is no wonder that Pliny should put the Peukini as a fifth part of the Germans; and that their name should be used as synonymous with the Basternæ.'

From the shores of the Baltic it is probable that the Peukini first passed into Scandinavia; and, on their moving westward, the Sitones followed. The Peukini probably never crossed the Vistula while the progress of the Sitones was to the westward. We may expect to find, therefore, the former on the western side of Scandinavia, and the latter on the eastern, which their predecessors had left: in short, we may find the origin of the Picts in a nation of Basternæ, a Scythian race. This opinion is not, we believe, quite new. If we mistake not, a similar one was suggested by Hector Boethius, adopted and supported, by strong arguments, by bishop Stillingfleet, in his *Origines Britannicæ*.

Before he concludes, Mr. Pinkerton examines the received opinions of the Scandinavian origin; in which, among other things, he asserts, and endeavours to prove, that there is no monument of Scandinavian history older than the eleventh century, and that Odin was only an allegorical personage.

The work concludes with epochs of the first and second Gothic progress over Europe. The first comprises a period from the Egyptian king Menes, the first who reigned after the gods and heroes, whose æra is supposed to be about 4000 years before Christ, to the establishment of the Picts in the north of Britain, about 300 years before the Christian æra. The second progress, from Getia and from Germany over Europe, comprehends a period from the subjection of Dacia, under Trajan, A. D. 103, to the year 508, when the Franks, under Clovis, subdued the Visigoths and Burgundians, and laid the foundation of the French monarchy.—The Appendix consists of Pliny's description of the northern parts of Europe, with a translation and remarks.

We have enlarged on this work, because we think it curious and important. But, while we have commended Mr. Pinkerton, we have not hesitated to tell him of his errors. We ought not to conclude without selecting a specimen of this kind, though we know that he hears of his faults with indignation.

nation. He will not, however, we think, defend the manner or the language of the following extract.

‘ From Diodorus Siculus, and others, it is clear that the manners of the Celts perfectly resembled those of the present Hottentots. The god Baal, Bell, or Belenus; the transmigration of souls; their cosmogony and theogony are wholly Phœnician; what their own mythology was we know not, but it in all probability resembled that of the Hottentots, or others of the rudest savages, as the Celts anciently were, and are little better at present, being incapable of any progress in society. But it is unnecessary to insist further upon this, as the Pelasgi can be shewn to be Scythæ; and M. Pilloutier, who alone takes them for Celts, clearly proves them Scythæ, that is, as he dreams, Celts; for he was so ignorant as to take the Celts and Scythæ for one people, in spite of all the ancients who mark them as literally *toto cœlo* different, and in spite of our positive knowledge here in Britain, who know the Celts to be mere radical savages, not yet advanced even to a state of barbarism; and if any foreigner doubts this, he has only to step into the Celtic part of Wales, Ireland, or Scotland, and look at them, for they are just as they were, incapable of industry or civilization, even after half their blood is Gothic, and remain, as marked by the ancients, fond of lies, and enemies of truth.’

There are many similar instances, which we sincerely regret in an author of his distinguished talents. He seems to aim at showing how high he can rise, and how low he can fall.

Prose on several Occasions: accompanied with some Pieces in Verse. By George Colman. 3 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

MR. Colman humorously compares himself to a linen-draper leaving off trade. He offers his stock to the public much under prime cost, and with this advantage, of which he is too generous to avail himself, that his goods, instead of being soiled with their former examinations, are much improved; his patterns, instead of losing their gloss and their novelty, in consequence of subsequent inventions, come on the town with an improved lustre, and the sanction which fashion has allotted them. In short, his remnants might set up a young adventurer, if they were not so well known as immediately to betray their source. Without a metaphor, he collects in these volumes his miscellaneous works. Selection, he observes, is not in his power: we believe it, and would prefer the worst pieces in these volumes from his own hands, to much better ones, in the mutilated condition we should probably have received them, with more than their own imperfections on their heads.

The

The author, in his Preface, gives a kind of catalogue raisonnée of the different works; we shall follow his plan, though not always his words, or his opinions. As the miscellaneous works are not new, and some of them have already been subjected to our tribunal, we have no other path left us to pursue.

Mr. Colman first claims the ninetyeth Number of the *Adventurer*, in which different authors offer at the altar of criticism their several errors. It seems to have been his first effort in this mode of writing, and affords a promising specimen of his future excellencies. The *Genius* was published in the *St. James's Chronicle*, and extended to fifteen Numbers. It is written with much spirit, and displays no common share of wit and humour: the two first Numbers are excellent. The *Gentleman* contains only six Numbers, which were published in the *London Packet*. The author's spirit, in this collection, is somewhat checked: his exertions seem to be slackened, and his fire decayed. Yet these papers are by no means devoid of merit.

The *Terræ Filius* was published during the *encænias* at Oxford. The name only may want explanation. This fictitious gentleman was the *Davus* of these *Saturnalia*, the *Pasquin* of the Carnival. As the name imports, he was generally unknown; but Mr. Colman has retained only the wit and spirit of the character: this Son of the Earth is no longer abusive.

Of the second Volume it is impossible to give any account that will approach to the nature of the contents. Prose with verse, grave didactic with humorous essays, criticism with mirth, lie blended in no unpleasing confusion. The greater number of these Letters were published in the newspapers—the theatre where many an *Entellus* in literature has first appeared, with all the terrors of youth and inexperience. We shall mention only a few of the most remarkable essays in this medley.

'Critical Reflections on the old English Dramatic Writers' have been before twice published, viz. in a separate state, and as a preface to some remaining sets of Coxeter's edition of *Massinger*. They contain ingenious remarks, and some judicious criticisms. The Preface to the edition of Beaumont and Fletcher, in 1778, is also now re-printed: Mr. Colman disclaims having had any share in this edition, except correcting the prefs.

The Appendix to the second edition of our author's translation of Terence was employed on an answer to Mr. Farmer's remarks on the learning of Shakspeare. Our author

replies

replies in a Postscript, now first published. Shakspeare is almost forgotten in the altercation, which seems hastening to personality. The matter is decided in a moment: our bard had probably some knowledge of the classics in his early years, which a life of dissipation, and other occupations, had not enabled him to improve. If we allow all that Mr. Colman contends for, it will make but little variation in the dispute. A man who was once at school may remember detached verses of his lesson without pretending to literature. His knowledge of ancient history was at least not drawn from the original sources.

The Remarks on Shylock's Reply to the Senate of Venice appears for the first time in these volumes. If we allow, as many commentators have suggested, that

‘ ——— cannot contain their urine for affection,’

means because they are so affected; we may read without any difficulty

‘ Masters of passion sway it to the mood
Of what it likes or loaths.’

Shylock, giving an account of some antipathies to excuse his own, tells his auditors that passion is subject to sway, which, as a master, turns it different ways. If, therefore, a colon is added after *affection*, and *sways* be changed to *sway*, a very slight variation, since in Shakspeare, punctuation and concords are not accurately attended to, the whole is sufficiently clear. Many commentators have made better readings for Shakspeare than he probably made for himself. Mr. Colman adds the following line, and reads

‘ Sovereign Antipathy, or Sympathy,
Mistress of Passion.’

To which we have only one objection, that there is not the least evidence of the passage having been written in this manner by Shakspeare.

The ‘ Thoughts on Public Education,’ contain Strictures on the Treatise of Locke, in Defence of Public Schools. We have not, in our perusal of it, met with any remarks either so new or so ingenious as to induce us to transcribe them.

The poems at the end of the second volume are of the lighter kind; but they have been already published, except the *Rolliad*, the adventures in consequence of a buttered roll being procured in a family whose mistress was unwilling to afford any delicacies. A mock-heroic seems a task so congenial to the sprightly Muse of Mr. Colman, that we are surprised at his not having before engaged in a work of this kind, or

pursued it to a greater extent: some of the lines have all the mock dignity which is required in such heroines.

‘ Tell me, good madam, where’s that mod’rate man
Who will not mend his lot when e’er he can?
Who will not for a palace slight a cot,
Or leave cold mutton for a slice of hot?
Where lofty Highgate haughtily looks down
On all the smoke-girt steeples of the town,
By an old wizard-sage around my head
The branching antlers of a stag were spread.
There by those horns I swore, those sacred horns,
A solemn oath no Christian trav’ler scorns,
Ne’er with unhallow’d tooth brown bread to bite,
When kinder fortune should afford me white.’

Again,

‘ As on the kitchen-fire a boiler large
Heats by degrees it’s elemental charge;
First from the top a misty steam it flings,
Warms, then ferments, then simmers, and then sings;
Now foaming, raging, boiling, bubbling quick,
Scarce on the brim the rattling lid will stick:
So heated by degrees, inflam’d at last,
Full at his head a huge peck-loaf she cast.
Ah vixen lady! as he fell he cried,
And the loose tallies clatter’d at his side.’

We have selected these passages, because the poem is the only one not before printed. The other poems in this volume are collected from the *St. James’s Magazine*, and the *St. James’s Chronicle*.

The third volume contains our author’s *Epistle to the Pisos*, which we formerly examined, together with some *Miscellaneous Poetry*. Prologues and Epilogues, a kind of poetry, depending more on a knowledge of stage-effect than on poetic fire, in which Mr. Colman is at present unequalled, and in which he probably never was excelled but by Mr. Garrick, fill nearly one-third of the volume. They display much acuteness, spirit, and ingenuity.

Of the *Miscellaneous Poetry*, the only original poem is the thirty-ninth Psalm, in blank verse: it resolves itself so easily into this kind of metre, that the author ‘ is almost afraid of having misnamed it, by styling it an imitation.’ Of the Prologues and Epilogues, the only ones not before published are those which were written for the private theatre at Wynnstay. Excepting the farewell Epilogue, we think them much inferior to Mr. Colman’s other productions in this department.

To resume the metaphor with which we set out, we must add, that we have thus given a bill of those articles in which our author chiefly deals. We have little doubt but that his
other

other customers will be as much pleased as ourselves, and will regret, that the 'kindly welcome gentlemen' is only a prelude to a longer separation.

An Estimate of the Temperature of different Latitudes. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 3s in Boards. Elmly.

Meteorology is a science which has been hitherto cultivated with little advantage; and the practical part, or that which is the object of Mr. Kirwan in this excellent work, is still less understood than the philosophy of meteors. When we consider the heat of this globe, as derived either mediately or immediately from the sun, it would appear very probable that it should be in a ratio compounded of his vicinity, the direct impulse of his rays, and the time of his continuance above the horizon. Various circumstances, however, influence it; and we find great heat at some periods near the pole, and perpetual frost in the vicinity of the equator. Indeed so various are degrees of heat in the same latitudes, and so uncertain the changes of the weather, that we had despaired of ever approaching towards a system that would give us, a priori, any rules for ascertaining it. Mr. Kirwan, though the subject still retains much of its uncertainty, has made a considerable progress in it; and the book before us is not less valuable for the numerous well-authenticated facts which it contains, than for the useful and ingenious deductions from them. We are willing even to hope, with our author, that it will enable us, in time, to foresee those changes which we cannot prevent.

The Preface contains some remarks on the imperfect state of meteorology, and the sources from which we may expect its improvement. Mr. Kirwan complains, like other observers, of the variety of scales of thermometers, and proposes to divide the space between congealing mercury and boiling water into 250 degrees. We think it would be more convenient to have the scale commence with freezing water, because thermometers can then be constructed, or at least verified from experiments, within the reach of every philosopher. For the same reason they may terminate in boiling water; and this space may well admit of degrees similar to those of Fahrenheit, viz. 244; for this number is easily divisible, and, by increasing the number of degrees, there is less necessity for fractions. In every well-proportioned thermometer of this length, on Fahrenheit's scale, $\frac{1}{2}$ and even $\frac{1}{4}$ of a degree may be distinguished by an accurate eye.

The first chapter is on the sources of heat and cold ; and Mr. Kirwan examines the effects of winds, of evaporation, and other causes. He gives a correct rule to ascertain the heights of congelation, which he divides into the upper and lower terms : the upper term marks that height beyond which no vapours rise, and of course no congelation takes place. The author considers the earth to have had some heat originally imparted to it at its creation, but does not believe that its heat is collected in the centre. Indeed the heat decreasing to a certain depth, and its degree then becoming stationary, sufficiently support his opinion.

To ascertain the various temperatures, it was necessary to fix on a standard situation, or one where the adventitious causes of heat or cold could have little effect. This situation must necessarily be on the sea, distinct from the gulf stream, which we know is warmer than the Atlantic in its neighbourhood, and distant so far from the continent, as not to be affected by the causes of heat and cold peculiar to it. In a situation of this kind, our author has given us a table of mean annual temperature in every latitude. It is necessary to observe that, in this enquiry, the *mean* temperature, whether annual or monthly, is chiefly required to form general rules, since the maxima and minima are greatly influenced by accidental circumstances. We shall select our author's conclusions from this table.

‘ With respect to the annual temperature, we may remark :
1st. That within 10 degrees of the poles the temperatures differ very little ; neither do they differ much within 10 degrees of the equator.

‘ 2dly. The temperature of different years differ very little near the equator, but they differ more and more as the latitudes approach the poles.

‘ 3dly. It scarce ever freezes in latitudes under 35° , unless in very elevated situations, and it scarce ever hails in latitudes higher than 60° .

‘ 4thly. Between latitudes 35° and 60° , in places adjacent to the sea, it generally thaws when the sun's altitude is 40° , and seldom begins to freeze until the sun's meridian altitude is below 40° .

The next chapter is on the mean monthly temperature. It has been found by observation, that the mean temperature of April is very near the mean annual temperature ; and it is very clear that, so far as heat depends on the action of the solar rays, the mean heat of every month must be as the sun's altitude, or, more strictly, as the sine of the altitude. In this way our author has calculated the mean monthly heat in each
lati-

latitude, corrected by the influence of the terrestrial heat, which increases the temperature of the latter months of summer. The table, however, though in a great degree composed from calculation, is corrected also by observation, since the duration of the sun above the horizon on one hand, and the cold produced by evaporation on the other, together with many other slighter causes which cannot be subjected to calculation, will always produce some varieties. From all these considerations the table of our author is composed; and, after a very strict examination, it appears to us extremely accurate.

The next chapter is on the differences of temperature of air, land, and water, as well as their capacities of receiving and communicating heat. After observing, with respect to the earth, that heat descends slowly, and is again returned to the air in winter, our author adds,

‘ Hence at a certain distance from the surface, namely, about 80 or 90 feet (if this depth has any communication with the open air, and perhaps at a much less depth, if there be no such communication) the temperature of the earth varies very little, and generally approaches to the mean annual heat. Thus the temperature of springs is nearly the same as the annual temperature, and varies very little in the different periods of the year, as Mr. Hellant has first observed. Thus also the temperature of the cave of the observatory at Paris, about 90 feet below the pavement, is about 53,5 degrees, and varies about half a degree in very cold years. Its temperature is somewhat above the mean temperature of Paris, on account of its communication with the external air. Mr. Van Swinden has observed that the greatest cold, even that which exceeds 0 Fahrenheit, if it lasts only a few days, penetrates no deeper than 20 inches, even when the earth is not covered with snow, and not above 10 inches where snow lies on the surface; by which we learn the important purposes this covering answers in high northern latitudes. In Siberia, where the cold is known to be so intense, immediately after the melting of the snow, the earth is found unfrozen, not only at its surface, but even to the depth of 16 feet, which shews that ice never penetrates into it, except in a very few places. By an observation made at the bottom of a mine lying between Calais and Boulogne, 476 feet beneath the surface, the temperature was 54°. The temperature of the salt-mines at Wieliczka, in Poland, is 52° at the depth of 320 feet; and from thence to the depth of 716 feet it does not vary, though the temperature of mines is subject to changes from causes that are peculiar to them: thus Mr. De Luc, at the depth of 801 feet in the mine of St. John in the Hartz, experienced a heat of 70°; but at the depth of 1359 feet, he found it no greater than 50°. Kraft observed the temperature of a cavern near Reutling, in Suabia, to be 48°, but water in the same cavern was heated only to 42°, the external air at that time being at 66°. The mine of Joachimstahd in Bohemia, is

reputed one of the deepest existing; in this Mr. Monnet found the temperature, at the depth of 1700 feet, to be 50°.

‘ All these facts tend to prove that the heat of the earth does not increase as we descend into it, but at the greatest depths is nearly the same as the mean annual temperature of the latitude. When the surface of the earth is cooled rapidly, the interior parts are cooled proportionably, to a certain depth, until the cold of the surface arrives at its maximum, and becomes constant; then the internal heat gradually gains upon it, with a force proportioned to their difference of temperature; and as in our climates the internal heat is always above 40, it is always sufficient to melt the snow that lies long on the surface. Hence in Switzerland, and many other countries, snow is observed to melt first at the bottom.’

The length of this quotation prevents us from mentioning particularly the facts which prove that land is capable of receiving more heat or cold than water. But this opinion is well established, and generally admitted. Independent of situation, land is found to admit of 8 or 10 degrees more heat than sea in summer, and is 8 or 10 degrees colder in winter.

Our author next examines the modifications of the standard temperature in consequence of the elevation of a country; its vicinity to, or distance from, large tracts of water, particularly the ocean; the vicinity or distance of other tracts of land, particularly fitted for receiving heat, or being cooled in a great degree; the bearings of seas, mountains, deserts, &c. in the neighbourhood; a more or less perfect communication with the standard ocean, seas, forests, &c. The corrections which arise from elevation are drawn with more precision than the others, and we shall consequently transcribe them.

‘ With respect to the precise effect of elevation, I find it to be very nearly as follows.

‘ 1st. When the elevation is moderate and gradual, such as that of the interior parts of most countries very distant from the sea, its effects are so blended with those of distance from the standard ocean, to be mentioned in the next section, that the same allowance in the diminution of temperature is to be made for both. By a gradual elevation, I mean any that rises at a less rate than six feet per mile, counting from the nearest considerable sea.

‘ 2dly. If the elevation proceeds at a greater rate, then for every 200 feet of elevation, we must diminish the annual temperature of the standard in that latitude as follows.

If the elevation be at the rate of

6 feet per mile	-	$\frac{1}{4}$ of a degree.
7 feet	-	$\frac{1}{3}$
13 feet	-	$\frac{2}{3}$
15 or upwards	-	$\frac{1}{2}$

The

The next chapters are on the temperatures of the Northern Pacific, from lat. 66° to 52° ; on the temperature of the eastern parts of North America; and of the Southern hemisphere. These regions are probably colder than appears from the table, for reasons which our author properly explains: but it is probable, in his opinion, that the antarctic winters are milder than the arctic, because there is no land at the south pole. From the great quantities of ice found in the summer, we think it probable that there is much land; but we have been kept at too great a distance from the south pole to be able to speak very positively on that subject on either side. The nearest approach made to it was, we believe, by the Resolution, in 1774, in latitude little exceeding 72° .

In the following chapters we have a collection of accurate and well-authenticated facts, relating to the temperature of different places. They are examined by the author's general rules, and support them with a greater precision than could be expected. But, independent of the rules, the facts themselves are valuable and important.

The general observations and inferences we cannot transcribe, on account of their length; or abridge, since they are a collection of facts deduced from the foregoing chapters. One of these, however, of a more general kind, may be selected.

'It is owing to the same provident hand, that the globe of the earth is intersected with seas and mountains, in a manner that, on its first appearance, seems altogether irregular and fortuitous; presenting to the eye of ignorance the view of an immense ruin: but when the effects of these seeming irregularities on the face of the globe are carefully inspected, they are found most beneficial, and even necessary to the welfare of its inhabitants; for, to say nothing of the advantages of trade and commerce, which could not exist without these seas, we have seen that it is by their vicinity, that the cold of the higher latitudes is moderated, and the heat of the lower. It is by the want of seas, that the interior parts of Asia, as Siberia and Great Tartary, as well as those of Africa, are rendered almost uninhabitable; a circumstance which furnishes a strong prejudice against the opinion of those who think these countries were the original habitations of man. In the same manner mountains are necessary, not only as the reservoirs of rivers, but as a defence against the violence of heat in the warm latitudes: without the Alps, Pyrenees, Apennine, the mountains of Dauphine, and Auvergne, &c. Italy, Spain, and France would be deprived of the mild temperature they at present enjoy. Without the Balgate hills, or Indian Apennine, India would have been a desert. Hence, Jamaica, St. Domingo, Sumatra, and most other intertropical islands, are furnished with mountains, from which the breezes proceed that refresh them.'

The two last chapters are on the causes of unusual cold in Europe, and on the temperature of London, compared with that of other noted places: these are also incapable of abridgment. We must now conclude our article, which we have endeavoured to make very comprehensive. Of a mass which consists of much close reasoning, and a variety of independent facts, it was not easy to give a very satisfactory account: we have received much information from the work, and we hope that we have excited a curiosity in our readers to peruse it entire. We can venture to promise much instruction, and entertainment of the most rational kind, from it.

The Evidence for a future Period of Improvement in the State of Mankind, with the Means and Duty of promoting it, represented in a Discourse delivered on Wednesday the 25th of April, 1787, at the Meeting-house in the Old Jewry, London, to the Supporters of a new Academical Institution among Protestant Dissenters. By R. Price, D.D. F.R.S. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

WE have had occasion to express our good wishes for the success of the new academical institution: we wished it well as friends to free enquiry, true religion, and the promotion of knowledge; and it is with no little regret that we see it now connected with party-zeal, and the superstructure attempted to be raised by depreciating the establishment, and the professors of the established religion. There are many insinuations in the Sermon, of this kind; and, even in the guarded report of the committee, annexed to the Sermon, 'shackles' are said to 'embarrass the integrity, and obstruct the improvement of youthful minds.' It would not be for the advantage of these institutions to examine them too minutely; and it is not politic in these gentlemen to urge the members of the church to an enquiry into the progress, and the cause of the termination of some academies. We know of no shackles, no restraints so powerful as poverty; and these are undoubtedly imposed, by introducing those into the Christian ministry who must be educated by the funds of the institution, and supported by squaring their opinions to the system of the congregation, perhaps the most illiterate of their congregation, if they should happen to be the most opulent. We must not now contend with our author concerning the necessity of an establishment; we have already given our opinion that, where there is no established, there probably will not be long any religion; and we think facts, recent events, have shown this to be the case. Besides, if there were no establishment there could be no dissenters, and dissent has always been nourished by oppo-

opposition; so that the very existence of the present sects depend probably on it. If we examine the propriety and the effects of free enquiry on its own grounds, we shall not find it so favourable to dissent as some have supposed. In this enquiring age their interest seems to us to be decaying; and that spirit, by which they hope to be supported, and their interests increased, may probably in the end prove fatal to them. But our readers may judge of the tendency of some parts of Dr. Price's Sermon, by one passage.

‘Remember then in your endeavours to enlighten and reform mankind, that you are co-operating with Providence; that the hand of God has marked out your path; and that his favour will guide and protect you. I have been shewing you how much the state of the world encourages you. A spirit of enquiry is gone forth. A disdain of the restraints imposed by tyrants on human reason prevails. A tide is set in. A favourable gale has sprung up. Let us seize the auspicious moment, obey the call of Providence, and join our helping hands to those of the friends of science and virtue.—Think not, however, that you have no difficulties to encounter. It will not be strange if an alarm should be taken about the danger of the church. There is a jealousy natural to church establishments (especially when undermined by time and the spread of knowledge) which may produce such an alarm. In this case it would be a most unreasonable alarm; for if our religious establishment can bear discussion, and stands on good ground, as its friends must believe, what harm can be done to it by an institution, the design of which is not to inculcate the peculiarities of any sect, but to communicate such general instruction, and to promote such a spirit of enquiry and candour, as shall form worthy citizens for the state, and useful ministers for the church?—This, however, is a consideration that will not prevent opposition. The enemies of reformation may be alarmed. Ignorance and intolerance may clamour. But their opposition cannot be successful. The liberal temper of the times must overpower them. Bigotry and superstition must vanish before increasing light. We see the clouds scattering. We live in happier times than our fore-fathers. The shades of night are departing. The day dawns; and the sun of righteousness will soon rise with healing in his wings. Let us keep our attention fixed on this reviving prospect. Animated by it, let us persevere in our exertions, knowing that, as far as we are on the side of liberty and virtue, we are on that side which must at last prevail.’

We know not with what sentiments our remarks may be read by dissenters, but we mean not to injure their cause. We think that they should not only be tolerated but encouraged; dissent should be encouraged to assist free enquiry, to be, in its turn, a guard against the indolence and supineness which
may

may be the consequence of a secure establishment; to be an asylum for those, whose consciences will not allow them to comply with the forms of the established church; above all, to cherish and support the spark of civil liberty, for which, in different æras of our history, we have been eminently indebted to them. The toleration should be complete; but it should be toleration only: an establishment is essential to the existence of a kingdom, as one entire active body; and the tests already framed are essential to the preservation of the establishment. In these sentiments we know that we are supported by many rational well-informed dissenters.

The Sermon, independent of these disputed points, and a few improprieties of language, is sensible and judicious. If we object at all, it is to pushing the point so far. The text is 'Thy Kingdom come,' &c. and the object of the preacher, to collect those prophecies which tend to show that there will be one general, fraternal union, in which passions, prejudices, and dissensions will cease; when, in reality, Christ's kingdom may be properly said to exist. Dr. Price traces the numerous improvements in the later ages, and supposes that they lead to this happy state. We hope indeed that they lead to a more happy one than that which has preceded; but we fear the expected kingdom is far distant. Fruitful seasons and fertile plains, in the natural world, are frequently the consequences of the 'wreck of elements:' in the moral world, order arises often from confusion; liberty, from oppressive insults, and civil wars; and peace, from the most destructive contests. Too many of the baleful passions seem still to exist, to allow us to form the pleasing expectation that we shall be at rest without farther disturbances; that we shall be refined without repeated fermentations.

As we have furnished, in our opinion, one exceptionable extract, we shall select another, in which Dr. Price appears in a pleasing and advantageous light.

'These observations (relating to the improvements in natural knowledge) are applicable, with strict propriety, to the natural course of improvement in religious knowledge; and particularly the knowledge of genuine Christianity, and its spread among mankind. Till the time of our Saviour, the world had been too much in its infancy to be capable of admitting more of the knowledge of Christianity than could be communicated by obscure hints, and a succession of dark preparatory dispensations. And even in the ages immediately following the time of our Saviour, it was by no means ripe for that universal prevalence of Christianity which we expect hereafter. The prejudices of mankind were then of such a nature, and the doctrine of the Gospel so much out of the road of their ideas, that
had

had it prevailed every where, it must have prevailed in a very imperfect form; and an adulteration of it by the false learning and philosophy of the times was unavoidable. For these reasons it might be necessary, that at first there should be only a partial propagation of it, and that its more general establishment should be deferred till the world was more improved, and therefore more capable of properly understanding it; till sufficient time had been allowed for a full discussion of its doctrines; till the completion of prophecy became an argument for it so striking as to be irresistible; till the system of nature, and the plans of Providence, should be laid more open to our views, and there should be a possibility of establishing it among mankind, in such purity, and with such evidence, as should leave no danger of farther adulterations of it.

‘It appears, therefore, that the same preparation of ages which is required to bring about advances in philosophical knowledge, is required also in religious knowledge. We are apt to be hasty and impatient. We should learn to wait till seeds have had time to grow and to produce crops. The government of the Deity proceeds gradually and slowly. As he does not bring the individuals of the human race on the stage of mature life, before they have been duly prepared for it, by passing through the instruction and discipline of infancy and childhood, so neither does he bring the species to that finished state of dignity and happiness for which it is intended, without a similar introduction and education.’

From the several reports of the committee, annexed to this Sermon, the funds and the institution seem to be in a flourishing state. We should be pleased, for the reasons we have assigned, to be able to announce their farther improvement. The world is wide enough for all; and, while we unite in being good subjects, good citizens, and good men, there is no harm in differing in some of our opinions, and in meeting to worship God in different forms, and in different buildings.

A Political Survey of the Present State of Europe, in Sixteen Tables. By E. A. W. Zimmermann. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Dilly.

IN various articles we have endeavoured, with particular care, to direct the attention of our readers to those branches of political disquisition which are founded on the relative population and powers of different states; to the influence which they have on each other, in consequence of their natural and commercial advantages, their industry and civilization. We could not engage particularly in subjects of this kind, because they were novelties in English literature, except where they were connected with geographical enquiries; where they arose incidentally in different works, or were united with the political declamations of party. Disquisitions of this kind have,
for

for some years, engaged the attention of the Germans. Their industry and perseverance, their peculiar situation and political connections, render it a very suitable employment. As a new science, they have given it a new name; and, in England, where the word *political* is variously applied, and often prostituted to the minute contentions for place and power, another name is very requisite. Our author translates the German word literally, and calls this science *statistics*, a word, though seemingly harsh, well adapted to the constitution of the English language. Statist was an old word for statesman, and our readers may reflect on Hamlet's comparison, 'as our statist do.'

The work before us is properly statistical. It consists of different tables, containing a general comparative view of the forces, the government, the extent and population of the different kingdoms of Europe; and afterwards an account of the same circumstances more particularly, under the title of each kingdom. The general tables are chiefly comprized in round numbers, and various errors seem to have been transcribed; but many of these are corrected in the particular ones; and, as the author's authorities are in general good, his distinctions accurate, and his judgment sound, there are fewer errors than we could have expected. We have particularly examined those parts of the work with which we are best acquainted: and, from our author's accuracy and attention there, we have reason to suppose that he is no less exact in the others.

Perhaps there was no period better suited for laying the foundation of a system of statistics than the present. England and France are resting from their labours, unable, from their former exertions, again to disturb the peace of Europe: and it is still more improbable that they will attempt it since their late more intimate connection. America, slowly emerging from her difficulties and intestine contentions, cannot soon act a distinguished part, though she may, at a future period, have a material share in the political system. On whichever side the disputes of Holland are to terminate, her influence either in war or peace must decline; in war, on account of the shallowness of her harbours, and the increasing bulk of the ships destined to carry on hostilities; in peace, because every European sovereign, intent on commerce, will employ his own vessels and his own subjects. Russia has now established herself on the Mediterranean, and will begin to appear as a southern power; while the incessant activity of the emperor, attempting every thing, will probably produce no material change. When he has hurried to crush a rebellion in Wallachia, he will be again wanted to compose the disturbances in the Netherlands.

therlands*. At this period then we may safely begin; and M. Zimmermann will prove a pretty secure and useful conductor. He must speak for himself.

‘ There are, perhaps, few persons who have a more sincere esteem, founded on reason and conviction, for England than myself; and nobody can be less inclined to depreciate the great and various worth of this nation, or to indulge that species of vanity which hopes to raise the dignity and importance of the individual, by exaggerating the collective lustre of those to whom he belongs. But as I know the liberal candour shown by well-informed Englishmen to the merit of other nations, I could not hesitate to mention that of my own countrymen, to whose enquiries this publication is indebted for a great part of its contents. I am still farther from presenting this work to the reader as the result and essence of what is known concerning the present state of Europe. I meant only to sketch out a few outlines of this science, upon the authority of the latest and most authentic works, which have not yet been sufficiently consulted by the political writers of England. These outlines I intend to fill up, at a future period, with more circumstantial and better arranged intelligence. Yet, even in the state in which they are now offered to the indulgence of the public, it is hoped they will not be considered as useless.’

Again,

‘ To the several articles contained in this work, some respectable statistical writers have added a view of the principal epochs of the history of each country. This task, as far as it tends to explain the gradual formation of the constitution and legislation, I intend to execute in the greater work above mentioned, together with a more complete and accurate account of the natural geography, of the climate and soil of each country, and the different appearances of both in the several provinces, than is to be met with in the usual geographical works. In the tables only those facts are contained which could be easily reduced to that form; others could be more naturally explained in the subsequent articles.’

The scientific state of each country is intended for the subject of our author’s larger work.

It is extremely difficult to give any proper idea of a volume, which chiefly consists of independent facts. We shall, however, transcribe, as a specimen, a few particulars relative to the extraordinary fertility of some parts of Spain. We select this passage, because the greater number of the facts are new.

‘ As a favourable instance of the fertility and industry of Spain, the same author (the abbé Cavanilles) has stated the produce of the province of Valencia in the following manner :

* This was the appearance of politics a few weeks since, when this article was written : the present threatening commotions will probably make no great alteration in the general system.

‘ Silk,

	French Livres.
Silk, 2,000,000 lb. valued at	30,000,000
Hemp — — —	1,500,000
Flax — — —	1,500,000
Wool, of the coarser sort, 23,000 cwt.	920,000
Rice — — —	5,180,000
Oil, 100,000 cwt.	4,500,000
Wine, 3,000,000 cantaros —	2 250,000
Dried raisins, 60,000 cwt. —	600,000
Figs — — —	480,000
Dates — — —	300,000
	<hr/>
	46,730,000

* The articles of corn, oil, maize, almonds, soda, salt, and the fisheries of the same province, amounted in 1770 to 65,000,000 livres. The amount and variety of these productions is really astonishing; yet it must be owned, that this province is perhaps the richest in Spain. One of the greatest obstacles to agriculture in this kingdom is the breeding very large flocks of sheep, the value of which is estimated in Spain at 30,000,000 livres. They take up too great an extent of ground for their subsistence, to the prejudice of agriculture and population. The number of those sheep whose wool is of the finest sort, is estimated at 5,000,000; the profits arising from them amount annually to 8,500,000 livres, of which 2,200,000 are paid to the king, 5,600,000 must be deducted for the necessary expences, and only 700,000 livres are the clear benefit of the proprietors. Of this fine wool 40,000 cwt. is annually sent off to London and Bristol (Dillon); about the same quantity to Rouen; 20,000 cwt. to Amsterdam, of which only 6000 cwt. remain in Holland; the rest is exported chiefly to different parts of Germany. The principal towns which carry on the wool-trade are the harbours of Bilboa and Santander, where wool is shipped for exportation; and those which produce the finest sorts of wool are Leon, Segovia, (which alone produces 25,000 cwt.) Avila, Burgos, and Soria.

* Agriculture flourishes most in the provinces of Castile and Estremadura; but, upon the whole, Spain does not produce corn enough for its consumption, and is under the necessity of importing large quantities.

As a specimen of our author's political remarks, we shall transcribe the following observations from the article of France: they are designed to point out the reasons why a kingdom, so highly favoured in natural advantages, is not more powerful.

* Many pernicious political prejudices, deeply rooted in the state by the length of time in which its ecclesiastical and civil form has been the same, and the vain ambition of its rulers, who exhausted its resources for the sake of dear-bought and precarious conquests, have checked the real progress of this empire.
Yet

Yet what is now wanting, a few successive good reigns, or even one reign of moderate length, of an enlightened and benevolent prince, possessed of the power which is entrusted to a French monarch, might easily supply. Should the kingdom be blest with a monarch wise and good enough to expect his brightest glory from the felicity and opulence of his subjects; just enough to put a stop to the disgraceful and unreasonable religious oppression, to allow industrious individuals to enjoy securely the fruits of their labours, and to extirpate that monstrous system of extortion which permits forty farmers-general to enrich themselves by the plunder of the miserable subject; a prince active enough to inform himself of the state of the kingdom by his own eyes, and not to rely on the misrepresentations of his ministers; such a prince might raise France to a height of power unprecedented in modern history. But such an event is scarce to be wished, when we consider that this power, in the hands of a weaker successor to an arbitrary throne, might endanger and destroy the liberty of Europe. From such a height, however, France is at present still very distant; its present state is a convincing proof how prejudicial a harsh and oppressive political system is to a country much favoured by nature, and, even in spite of despotism, rich, cultivated, and populous.

We must not conclude without expressing the great pleasure and information which we have derived from this Survey. We wish the author success in his pursuits. The errors which have occurred to us he has himself in general corrected, the others are too few, and of too little importance to be pointed out: in the language, though the work of a foreigner, there are scarcely any. The only one which we have perceived that may mislead, is styling isinglass a mineral production. In fact, he thinks isinglass the English term for mica, which we usually translate glimmer.

Sean Dana ; Le Oisian, Orran, Ulann, &c. Ancient Poems of Oisian, Orran, Ullin, &c. By John Smith, D. D. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Elliot.

IN our Forty-ninth Volume, p. 350, we reviewed Mr. Smith's Gaelic Antiquities, and mentioned his proposed publication of the originals of the poems included in that collection, if the design appeared likely to receive support. These originals now appear. We know not that the appearance contributes to settle the dispute which Mr. Macpherson's work first occasioned; since that time it has assumed a shape and a form somewhat different from that which it wore at first. We well know that originals exist, but they do not exist exactly in the shape in which they have been formerly communicated; for they

they are in reality detached poems, of no great length; and Mr. Smith has not only given the original language, but has probably made little, if any variations in their form. The present object of dispute is the age; and we must confess that, after a very careful examination of the different facts and arguments, it does not appear that the poems which have been published, can be traced to an earlier origin than the 14th or 15th century.

The arguments which have been adduced to show that the æra of Ossian was in the fourth or fifth century, are extremely fallacious; and, if allowed in their whole force, will support only a vague and uncertain antiquity, probably of no great extent. Even the testimony of Giraldus, in the twelfth century, proves only that some songs were then attributed to Ossian, but of what kind we know not; and there is not the most distant proof that they bore any resemblance to those now in our hands. It is highly probable, even from the quotations in this volume, that they were very different. The testimony of Barbour, as it is managed in the work before us, is of less consequence, and very suspicious. If the state of society and manners, on the one hand, militates against the later æras, it no less opposes a very remote period. The conduct of the disputants has not contributed to take away every suspicion: Mr. Macpherson has been said with positiveness, to have interpolated quotations; and we are sorry to be obliged to remark, that Mr. Smith, in his Eulogium on the Celts, translated from Ælian, omits the very remarkable words *εγω αυτος*. In Ælian, an author whose Various History has been suspected, these words, which reduce the whole to a hearsay story, which relate to a people scarcely known to the Romans, and at a great distance from a rhetorician in Italy, should certainly have been remarked; and it would have shown some candour if it had also been observed that, by subsequent authors, the qualities mentioned were supposed to have been designed as descriptive of the Cimbri.

If we take away this, and some other notes, which the zeal of the author for the antiquity of his favourite bard, rather than his judgment, seems to have dictated, we shall not deny him the praise of a faithful editor, and an ingenious commentator. We were much pleased with his remark on a passage which describes the combat of Fingal with the spirit of Loda. Some lines in Mr. Hole's Ode to Ossian may, he thinks, be almost taken for a translation of it, though 'not intended as such.' This coincidence, while it shews that the ingenious author of the version of Fingal into heroic verse had imbibed the genuine spirit of its original, and adds a value to his work, in some degree weakens the arguments which have been adduced

duced for the antiquity of these poems, and demonstrates that a man of genius, to whom some of these relics were familiar, might have imitated them with success, and little danger of detection. Thomson had, from some of the parallel passages here quoted, evidently sipped of this Heliconian spring. The description of the second fight, in the Castle of Indolence, the 'sad genius of the coming storm,' in the Seasons, the 'aerial music,' and recalling, for a time, long lost friends from the tomb, in his other works, are striking instances of imitation at least, if not of copying.

We shall select, as a specimen of our author's notes, the remarks on Gaelic poetry.

'In the ancient Galic poetry, one often meets with a variety of rhyme and measure in the same piece. The same has been frequently observed of the ancient poetry of other nations. "It is not to be wondered at (says Rabbi Azarias, speaking of the Hebrew poetry,) that the same song should consist of different measures: for the case is the same in the poetry of the Greeks and Romans; they suited their measures to the nature of the subject and the argument; and the variations which they admitted, were accommodated to the motions of the body, and the affections of the soul." R. A. in Meor Enajim.

'Rhyme did not seem to be essential to the compositions of the Celtic bards; many of them are entirely destitute of it; and when most attention seems to have been paid to it, it is done with a latitude unknown in English compositions. A conformity of sound betwixt the last word of the preceding line, and some word about the middle, and sometimes in the end of the following one, is all that the ancient bards seem to have wished for in the matter of rhyme. When stanzas consist of four lines, the same conformity is found often between the concluding words of each couplet, or between some two of the vowels in these words; for they were not so anxious about preserving any similarity betwixt the sound of the consonants.— This similarity of sound, by which the end of one line or couplet always suggested the line or couplet following, greatly facilitated the committing of those pieces to memory; and for this purpose, more than to please the ear with any jingle of sound, the art seems to have been at first invented by the bards or druids.'

So few of our readers are acquainted with the Gaelic, that of the original poems we shall make no extracts. We have little doubt but that this publication will be acceptable to the lovers of Gaelic literature, and we are certain that it will be so to the admirers of genuine poetry, if the means of understanding it be in their power. We only beg leave to add that no originals, orally recited, can determine the æra of composition; and the occurrence of the word Fingal, in an old poem, is extremely suspicious, if it be supposed an abridg-

ment of a name so dissimilar as Fion Mac Coel, or even Fyr Mac Coal.

The History of the Turkish, or Ottoman Empire, from its Foundation in 1300, to the Peace of Belgrade in 1740. To which is prefixed, an Historical Discourse on Mahomet and his Successors. Translated from the French of Mignot, by A. Hawkins, Esq. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 6s. Stockdale.

THE abbé Mignot, the nephew of Voltaire, was the original author of this History. It is a plain candid relation of the facts which he drew from the most respectable European sources, with a little assistance from some Arabian translations. As a History, in the most extensive sense, it is deficient: we perceive no great comprehensive views, no profound political enquiries, no philosophical investigation of either motives or characters. Yet we have great reason to be satisfied with the accuracy of the relations, and on this account we can recommend it to our readers. The three first volumes comprehend the events which occurred previous to the commencement of the 18th century, and conclude with the death and character of Solyman II. A. D. 1691. The fourth volume, which concludes the work, contains the history of the Turks during the present century.

It is well known that the vast and ambitious designs of Mahomet were not supported with equal ability by his successors. The caliphs soon declined in reputation and power: Tartarian conquerors overwhelmed the system, reared by a blind and wild enthusiasm, while the Ottomans, from a remote corner, by degrees extended their conquests over both. This has induced the original author to prefix a short history of Mahomet and the caliphs, before he treats professedly of the Ottomans. This essay is not very well executed. A proportional space is not allowed to events of equal importance, and the latter part is crowded together, as if the author was weary of his task. The History is executed much better.

It is needless to pursue the train of events, as they are well known; and, even in their present form, probably familiar to many of our readers. On the whole, we think this History an acquisition to English literature; but now the Arabic is more generally studied in England, we hope that we shall receive better entertainment than a French compiler can afford. We shall select the following political remark, as it contains an accurate and just distinction.

‘ We understand here by despotism, the right of commanding without contradiction, and without written laws, or the sole right of interpreting those that are so. The Turks know no other

other written law than the Alcoran and the Sunna, which give, indeed, some general precepts, but are far from prescribing the manner of governing in particular cases, or in all the ordinary ones. Though the interpretation of those pretended sacred writings belongs to the mufti, the dignity and possessions of this chief of the Mussulman religion are in the hands of the emperor; he dares not undertake any thing against the will of his master, at least if he be not sure of dethroning him. The manners of the Turks, more constant than their laws, undoubtedly restrain the power of the monarch. He risks his throne and his life, when he attempts to misuse them too openly. This is also an effect of despotism, which exposes the days of the sovereign whenever this sovereign is not the strongest. The Turks are not all slaves, as some have pretended; but they are all liable to confiscation of property, and even to be put to death without being convicted of any crime: and this misfortune happens frequently to the most elevated ranks. The Ottoman monarchs are likewise despotic, in no one's having a right to reclaim in their presence, either the interest of the people, or the authority of the law. To conclude, if we define despotism a power without bounds, the Ottoman emperors are not despotic, and there are none such on the face of the earth. But if we define it a power without rules, there is no monarch more despotic than the sovereign of the Turks.'

From the History itself, we cannot properly select any unconnected portion: probably the following account of the institution of the janissaries may be sufficient for a specimen.

'Amurath paid very great attention to his infantry, which he justly regarded as the principal force of armies. He established the corps of janissaries as we see it at this day: and, by the advice of Kara Ali, his grand vizier, he ordered, that the fifth part of the slaves that should be made from the enemy, (for the Turks call their prisoners of war by no other name,) should belong to the sultan, and that these foreigners, having embraced Islamism, should form a new corps, which Amurath fixed at ten thousand men, but it was afterwards considerably augmented. He divided them into odas or chambers, at the head of which he appointed particular officers; and he subjected the whole corps to a chief, called an aga, who, by his credit and authority, became one of the first officers of the empire. As Amurath wished to give this corps of infantry the renown of great valour, he resolved to consecrate it by religion. The first enrolled were sent to a dervis, whose holy life rendered him recommendable. As soon as these new soldiers were prostrated before him, the solitary man, affecting a prophetic tone, and placing the sleeve of his garment on the head of the first of them: "Be their name janissaries," said he; "be their countenances fierce, their hands always victorious, their swords always sharp, their lances always ready to strike at the head of an enemy, and their courage the cause of their constant prosperity."

city." Since this period, they have always retained the name of janissaries, which signifies new soldiers, and their cap has retained the form of a sleeve. This soldiery became very useful to the Ottoman empire, and sometimes fatal to its masters.'

As we have not the original at hand we cannot speak, with accuracy, of the merit of the translation. Some passages appear obscure, and the language in general deserves little praise; but we ought not to attribute, without farther evidence, the obscurity to the translator. In one part, we see clearly that it arises from the author's having neglected to make a necessary distinction.

The Temple of Folly, in four Cantos. By Theophilus Swift, Esq.
4to. 5s. Johnson.

THIS performance is dedicated to the earl of Aldborough, and 'under so powerful and illustrious a patronage, says the author, the dullest poem might derive an advantage which, in those days of unencouraged and unprotected merit, seldom falls to the lot of better performances.' We were in hopes that this trite and thread-bare mode of complimenting the great had been discarded by men of learning and genius. Need we to repeat an observation, the truth of which cannot be controverted, that though a patron may protect the author, the work must protect itself? In another place Mr. Swift, somewhat strangely in our opinion, declares, that it is not so much his lordship's approbation as censure that he would solicit.

'In this, says he, I have an interest, which every body but yourself will be ready to allow; for, conscious that the work abounds with a multitude of errors and mistakes, to correct these under the direction of so good a poet and so discerning a judge, will contribute more to my reputation as a writer, than the most flattering applause of others can bestow.'

What a novel method of acquiring reputation is this! We will admit that the poem might have been improved by his lordship's corrections before it was sent to the press; but how it can obtain any advantages from them afterwards, unless in a subsequent edition, exceeds our comprehension. By the same mode of reasoning, the detection of a man's faults, if pointed out by another eminent for his rank and sanctity, would add to the goodness of his character. The 'courtly dew,' which Dryden so lavishly bestows on the great, reflects no credit on his memory; it had, however, the sanction of custom, and that rendered it less liable to censure. We cannot but think that Mr. Swift's panegyric often borders on adulation,

tion, and has not that excuse; it is, however, entitled to a better. He mentions a transaction in which lord Aldborough's benevolence extricated him from severe distress; and no feeling mind can condemn the effusions of gratitude.—Mr. Swift tells us, in the Preface, that 'his satire is not personal:' that '*folly* was the object of the poet; the *fool* hath *all along* escaped:' is not then the ridicule thrown on Lunardi, that '*star of vanity*,' who seems the hero of the piece, personal satire? but, says the author, 'if the fool hath personally figured, the individual cannot say he has been injured, while thousands were equally comprehended in the satire.' Surely, to a person exhibited in a ridiculous light it can afford but little satisfaction to be told, that he is merely the representative of a thousand others. The satire, however, contained in this poem is general, with scarcely any exception but that of the adventurous aeronaut who is introduced

' — seated in his grand balloon,

Plucking bright honor from the pale-fac'd moon.'

The author seems to have adopted the Dunciad as his model, and he has imitated it with success. In the first canto he beholds, in a vision, a building of prodigious magnitude, which he finds to be the *Temple of Folly*; that, and *Moria*, the tutelary goddess, are depicted in a bold and animated style. The following lines are extremely pleasing and picturesque.

' Here Pleasure wanton'd in ambrosial bow'rs,

Sunk on the bosom of the rosy Hours.

Wild to the winds, that play'd among the trees,

Light airs of music warbled in the breeze:

On the rapt ear the sweet enchantment hung,

Charming the old, and ravishing the young.

Two fountains here their copious streams supply,

The fountain this of Peace, and that of Joy,

Whose murmurs lull'd the soul to soft repose,

For Folly still in full abundance flows.

Flowers of all hue, that charm the sight or smell,

Pansies, and hyacinths, and asphodel,

Their luscious odors shed: and, round the whole,

Oblivious Lethe's silent waters stole.'

The remaining cantos describe the respective characters and pursuits of the various votaries of Folly; among whom, as we before observed, Lunardi makes no inconsiderable figure. The account he delivers of his airy tour is not much unlike that which Sancho gives of his expedition on Clavileno, and equally humorous.—Mr. Swift speaks with some contempt of those 'who imagine that the days of a social being should be spent in his closet, measuring syllables, and turning periods; or in turning over the pages of musty authors, and

breaking his teeth with chewing heathen Greek.' 'The world, says he, has been my study; and the circles of social life, the chief libraries I have consulted.' Of his knowledge of the world we pretend not to judge; but we will venture to assert that he has not treated his friends, who *lived in other days*, with that respect to which they were entitled. He has evidently studied books as well as men. The notes annexed, shew that his reading has been various and extensive. His classical knowledge is considerable; he thinks for himself; and his remarks are in general scientific, lively, and entertaining.

The Emperor's new Code of Criminal Laws. Published at Vienna, the 15th of January, 1787. Translated from the German, by an Officer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

AN enlightened politician will render the punishment of criminals useful to the state, not only by the terror of the punishment, but by the means of it. In the emperor's dominions a new experiment is now made: no criminal is punished with death; but by public exposure, imprisonment of different kinds, with heavier fetters, different degrees of confinement, solitude, and hard work. Other crimes are punished corporally, either with the hot iron, which leaves an indelible mark, or by stripes. It appears, from the enquiry of a benevolent and enlightened traveller, that solitude, while it is the heaviest punishment, is the most effectual method of reformation. The guilty mind cannot bear its own reflections; and, when forced by solitude to return on itself, it becomes its own tormentor, and the severest that can be employed. If the experiment succeeds, there is no honour which a humane and polished nation can bestow, that will be too great for the discoverer: he already enjoys the best reward, that of having meant well, and of having often alleviated the pains of misery—pains often indiscriminately inflicted on the innocent and the guilty. It is a noble principle in the English law, that every man is innocent till he has been proved guilty; but it is almost entirely counteracted by the horrors of an English jail.

We shall extract the systems of punishment relating to imprisonment.

' 22*. The degrees relative to the duration of punishment are, (a) of long duration in the second degree; (b) of long

* 'The want of free-will absolves the offender from any criminal accusation, in the following cases:

' (a) When the offender has totally lost the use of his reason.

' (b) When the faculties of the offender, being subject to sudden or periodical disorder, the action was committed while he was under such affliction.

duration in the first degree; (c) continual in the second degree; (d) continual in the first degree; (e) for a limited time in the second degree; (f) for a limited time in the first degree.

‘ 23. According to these degrees expressed in the present code, the judge, by conforming himself to article 14, may at pleasure determine the suitable duration of time. In the sentence, the duration of the time of punishment must always be expressed. The duration of a punishment for a limited time, in the first degree expressed in this code, must never be less than the space of one month, nor exceed five years. The duration of punishment for a limited time, in the second degree, must never exceed eight years, nor be less than five. The duration of punishment, called continual punishment in the first degree, must never exceed twelve years, nor be less than eight. The duration of continual punishment, in the second degree, must never exceed fifteen years, nor be less than twelve. The length of the punishment of long duration, in the first degree, must be never less than fifteen years, nor exceed thirty. The length of punishment of long duration, in the second degree, must never be less than thirty years, and it may be prolonged, according to the circumstances, even to one hundred years.

‘ 26. The following degrees relate to the punishment of imprisonment: (a) the most rigorous imprisonment; (b) the severe imprisonment; (c) the milder imprisonment. In these three degrees of imprisonment, the criminal is to work out a task, proportioned to one of the three degrees.

‘ 27. In cases of the most rigorous imprisonment, the criminal is confined day and night to the spot assigned him, with a ring of iron fastened about his middle; and he may be loaded with additional irons, if the kind of work imposed on him permit, or the danger of his escape render it necessary. When a criminal is condemned to suffer imprisonment, he has no bed but the floor, no nourishment but bread and water, and all communication, not only with strangers, but with his acquaintance and relations, is refused him.

‘ (c) When the action has been committed in a moment of drunkenness, purely accidental, and that has not been premeditatedly designed; or in a confusion of circumstances, or a perturbation of mind, during which time the offender has not known what he did.

‘ (d) When he is an infant that has not accomplished his twelfth year.

‘ (e) When he who does what is contrary to law, has been obliged to it by force, or by some irresistible power.

‘ (f) When the action has been committed through error, in which case no crime can be imputed to the offender, since, had he possessed proper information, he might have conducted himself, as the laws and good principles directed him.’

‘ 28. A criminal, condemned to the severe imprisonment, is to be treated as above, with this difference only, that the irons on his feet shall not be so heavy, and that he shall be allowed a pound of meat on two several days in the week.

‘ 29. It is a consequence of the sentence which inflicts the chain, the most rigorous imprisonment, or the severe imprisonment, that the criminal can make no will from the day judgment has been pronounced against him, to the completion of his punishment; and also that every will which he may have already made, before judgment was pronounced, or directly after his being apprehended, becomes null and without effect.

‘ 30. The criminal condemned to the milder imprisonment is confined by irons, less heavy indeed, but such as to prevent his escaping without considerable force and address. To a criminal under this sentence, a better nourishment is allowed, but he has nothing to drink but water. Nor is he to speak or hold communication with his relations or acquaintance, unless very strong reasons can be shewn and declared, and that in the presence of the jailer, if the circumstances require it. Even the milder imprisonment may be rendered less mild, by more rigorously fasting some part of the week. The prisoner, on such days of fast, will receive only one pound of bread.’

To these, other punishments of less importance sometimes are added, as the hot iron and corporal correction, to bring it nearer to an enormous offence. In this Code, the degrees of punishment are well adapted to the injuries which society receives from the crime, except that military offences are arranged too near the enormous ones; and even sentence of death may be awarded by a court-martial. This is always to be inflicted by hanging.

Chess. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THIS is an entertaining compilation: to chess-players, it is interesting. It consists of all the anecdotes which the author could collect relative to the game, with an account of all the chess-books he could procure. The game is undoubtedly of Indian origin; and the importance, as well as the motions of the king, which have scarcely undergone any change, show that, with the eastern despotism, the eastern indolence was nearly connected. In the original state, the queen was the vizier; and there is a great propriety in the extensive influence, the various motions, and the rapid exertions of the minister, which were lost when, in the ages of chivalry, he was changed to a lady. After the change of sex she acquired her title; and our author seems to insinuate that the alteration was

was not very judicious: the influence of a *wife* is not so extensive as that of the *lady*. The other changes in the characters of the principal agents it is not our business to enlarge on. The enthusiastic admiration of chess-players for their game is easily accounted for by those who have felt its influence, and have known the uncommon hold it takes of the mind and its affections. Equal players labour with great earnestness; and a casual absence of mind alone determines the game. We have heard of a lady's suffering herself to be undressed, without perceiving it, while immersed in the mysterious movements of queens, bishops, and knights. Our author tells us of two equal players, whose contests were decided only by the motions of a carriage; for he who was brought to the other was always conquered. We might indeed have more readily believed this story if we had not recollected another, which was once told of two famous running horses, of which that was always defeated whose rider had the key of the stable in his pocket. We have, however, read this book with great pleasure and some information, and shall extract a passage or two, as specimens of the author's collection. The following is taken from the *Avertimenti* of Carrera, added to this work, entitled '*Il Gioco degli Scachi*,' published in 1617.

"He who plays, must not have his mind occupied elsewhere; perhaps in things of importance, because, without doubt, he will then be the loser.

"Whoever is to play an important game, must avoid filling his belly with superfluous food, because fulness is contrary to speculation, and offuscates the sight; so that it is necessary he should observe strict sobriety: those people are praise-worthy, who, previous to playing, clear their head by medicines, which have the virtue of rendering the spirits pure and subtile; by which means they may enter into the consideration and acuteness of the moves with the greater intension."

"Carrera invented two new pieces, to be added to the eight original chess-men. That which he calls *Campione*, is placed between the King's Knight and Castle: its move is both that of the Castle and of the Knight. The other, named *Centaur*, between the Queen's Knight and Castle, has the move of the Bishop and Knight united. Each of these pieces has its pawn, and of course the board must contain two more squares on each side, which will augment their number to eighty. This invention appears to have died with the inventor.

"Several common games are specified, wherein the advantage given by one player to the other, consists in allowing him *il Récavallo*, *la Donna-cavallo*, or that his King or Queen might likewise move like the Knight."

We

We have inserted this passage to observe, that not only abstinence but religion was often called in to the assistance of the chess-player. We have instances, in the same work, of a player having taken the sacrament previous to his engagement, and having, by means of this holy rite and his beads, been victorious against an adversary, who is hinted to have employed a spirit of no very good sort. It adds not a little to the credit of the inventor of the game, that, though others besides Carrera have enlarged its scope by adding other pieces, yet, either because the combinations were so far increased as to become tiresome, or that the simplicity of the game was destroyed, they have seldom survived their inventors. In its original form it has excited so much attention, and been so warmly admired, that corsairs have received lessons on it instead of a ransom, and kings bestowed bishopricks on those who have excelled in it. Disappointment of victory is said to have often injured the temper, and we believe it; for it is a game in which no conquered person can blame chance: the fault lies chiefly on his own want of judgment, or of skill. We know one player who has been styled invincible, for he never will leave off till he has conquered, either by his knowledge of the game, or by wearying his adversary.

We shall conclude with one other specimen relating to this powerful passion for victory.

Ruy Lopez "having heard of Leonardo's fame, he sought his acquaintance, played with him, and conquered him two following days; which vexed the young man so much, that he immediately went to Naples, where he remained two years, studying and practising chess. From thence he returned to his native place Cutri, in Calabria, where he learnt that his brother had been taken by corsairs, and chained to the oar. Leonardo set out to ransom him, and agreed with the reis or captain of the galley, that he should be set at liberty for two hundred crowns. Leonardo having discovered that the reis was a chess-player, played with him, and won his brother's ransom, and two hundred crowns beside, with which he returned to Naples: from thence he sailed to Genoa, Marseilles, and Barcelona, playing with, and conquering all he met; and then travelled to Madrid, where he soon revenged himself on Ruy Lopez, by beating him at chess in the presence of Philip II. This king afterwards gave him a thousand crowns, and many jewels, furs, &c. Leonardo then went to Lisbon, where he beat a famous player named il Moro, (though not a black.) The king loaded him with presents, and gave him the title of knight-errant."

Select Odes from the Persian Poet Hafez, translated into English Verse, with Notes critical and explanatory, by J. Nott.
4to. 10s. 6d. Cadell.

THE translator of these poems speaks of Persian literature in the highest terms : and wishes that new adventurers would pursue the example of the count Reviski, Mr. Richardson, and sir William Jones. To remove, in some degree, the obstructions that may retard their progress, he gives many strictures on the nature of the language, and notes to elucidate the meaning of peculiar phrases in the original, which accompanies his version. He particularly recommends the Persian grammar compiled by sir William Jones, which he mentions, according to the Asiatic idiom, as ‘ studded with oriental gems.’ He gives an ample account of the construction and nature of the poems, the manner of pronouncing the original words, which are rendered in English characters, and the method he pursued in his translation. To those who intend to study, or rather those who are somewhat versed in the Persian language, this part of the performance will afford, we apprehend, much entertainment and instruction. To such, the high encomiums bestowed on the eastern writers may possibly appear just and proper ; to us, who only judge through the medium of a translation, they seem rather exaggerated. A little enthusiasm is, however, excusable in a translator, Mr. Nott ‘ laments, while years are bestowed in acquiring an insight into the Greek and Roman authors, that those very writers should have been neglected from whom the Greeks evidently derived both the richness of their mythology, and the peculiar tenderness of their expressions.’ He supposes that the god Camdeo, to whom the Hindou hymn, so well translated by sir William Jones, is addressed, to have been the archetype of the Greek *Eros*, and that Apollo and the Muses originate from *Krishen* and *Gopia*, mentioned in that performance. The slight account there given of the latter, can we think scarcely warrant such a conjecture : and the attributes of the Indian Cupid are very different from those of the Greek and Roman deity, the bow and arrows excepted. But the ‘ bowstring composed of swarming bees ; and the five arrows tipt with flowers delicious to the smell, but fatal to the taste,’ bear but little resemblance to the insignia of the classic deity. That the Greeks derived great part of their mythology, however they mistook or corrupted it, through the medium of Egypt, cannot be doubted. That they laid Phœnicia and other Asiatic nations under similar contributions to furnish them with their quota of deities, is likewise probable ; but that they extended this peculiar kind of thievery, the stealing and appropriating to themselves the gods of other nations, to the coasts of the Ganges, is more questionable

able. It is, however, not improbable, that some of the Indian doctrines and traditions might be communicated to them at a very early period of time, through the intercourse which subsisted between that country and Egypt. To investigate such a subject requires labour, penetration, and a thorough knowledge of the various languages of antiquity: sir William Jones, from his situation, abilities, and extensive learning, would be most likely to succeed in so arduous an attempt: though, at last, probably the utmost evidence that could be obtained, would amount to little more than vague and uncertain conjecture.—The life of Hafez is prefixed. He was contemporary with Tamerlane, who was exceedingly displeased with him for saying, in one of his Odes, that *he would give for the mole on the cheek of his beloved all Samarcand and Bokhara.*

The haughty monarch ‘thought that Hafez meant to depreciate the value of these towns, when he would barter their riches for the mole on his favourite’s cheek; upon which our bard is reported to have said: “how can the gifts of Hafez impoverish Timur?” Meaning, that poets in general had nothing to give; and that they might lavish away kingdoms in their verses, without doing the smallest injury to their royal possessors. Tamerlane acknowledged, that he was more pleased with the poet’s wit, than with the utmost panegyric his song could have bestowed.’

This is a curious portrait of Asiatic manners. None but a capricious despot could have supposed that Hafez meant aught by his poetical gallantry but to exalt the charms of his mistress; or would have been so highly delighted with an answer, that his own mind, on the least reflection, would have afforded him. Tamerlane, as well as other monarchs, we find, wished to retain Hafez at his court, to witness his grandeur, and celebrate his exploits; but our poet was of too independent or careless a spirit to bear confinement, with whatever honours it might be attended. Hafez indeed seems to have possessed more of the Anacreontic than Homeric spirit. Women and wine are his favourite topics. He lived a voluptuary, and died, no uncommon case, a devotee.—Of the fidelity of the translation we pretend not to judge. It is in general elegant, and, from the original cast and peculiarity of the figures with which it abounds, we should suppose it to be just. The translator has explained those that are most striking and uncommon; but many of them are still obscure, and more fanciful than pertinent. We mean not to imply any censure by the observation: those only who are versed in the Persian language, we may add manners and customs, can be proper judges of the propriety of the figures and allusions in these poems: many of the latter are probably irretrievably lost by the lapse of time, and

and imperceptible to the natives themselves. To try Hafez by the rules of European criticism would be as unfair as to condemn Shakspeare by those of Aristotle. We shall join, for the reader's amusement, the first Ode, which is less strongly marked with *Orientalisms* than some others, and breathes the genuine spirit of poetry. The note annexed will give an idea of the manner in which they are generally written. They not only explain the nature of Asiatic metaphors and their customary application, but afford much valuable information in other respects.

‘ Unless my fair-one’s cheek be near
To tinge thee with superior red,
How vain, O rose, thy boasted bloom !
Unless, prime season of the year,
The grape’s rich streams be round thee shed,
Alike how vain is thy perfume !
In shrubs which skirt the scented mead,
Or garden’s walk embroider’d gay,
Can the sweet voice of joy be found—
Unless, to harmonize the shade,
The nightingale’s soft-warbled lay
Pour melting melody around ?
Thou flow’ret trembling to the gale,
And thou, O cypress ! waving slow
Thy green head in the summer air ;
Say—what will all your charms avail,
If the dear maid, whose blushes glow
Like living tulips, be not there ?
The nymph who tempts with honied lip,
With cheeks that shame the vernal rose,
In rapture we can ne’er behold ;
Unless with kisses fond we sip
The luscious balm that lip bestows—
Unless our arms that nymph enfold.
Sweet is the rose-empurpled bow’r,
And sweet the juice distilling bright
In rills of crimson from the vine :
But are they sweet, or have they pow’r,
To bathe the senses in delight,
Where Beauty’s presence does not shine ?
Nay, let the magic hand of art
The animated picture grace,
With all the hues it can devise
Yet this no pleasure will impart,
Without the soul-enchancing face
Tinctur’d with nature’s purer dyes.
But what’s thy life, O Hafez ! say ?
A coin that will no value bear,
Altho’ by thee ’tis priz’d in vain—

Not worthy to be thrown away *
 At the rich banquet of thy fair,
 Where boundless love and pleasure reign !'

Select Dramatic Pieces, some of which have been acted on Provincial Theatres. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Lowndes.

OUR author's modesty is commendable : it dawns in the title, and rises to its meridian in the beginning of the Preface : towards the end indeed it seems to decline. These 'Dramatic Pieces,' says he, are obtruded on the world, not from the consideration of their merit, but that they may probably furnish hints, situations, and other materials, to some theatrical architect, who may know how to dispose of them, in better proportion, or convey them to some more noble design.' We might have been pleased with the attempt, if some of these hints, &c. had not already been detached from 'more noble designs,' to furnish the patch-work of this author. We now survey this volume with the regret we should feel at the sight of a heap of ruins : on this side appears the shaft of a column, of a beautiful proportion : on that, a Corinthian capital, or the remains of a Mosaic pavement. We are for a moment pleased to reflect, that these may again form some noble work ; but we are sorry to see them disfigured by heaps of rubbish ; and look with a little contempt on the man who has destroyed an elegant structure, to load himself with beauties which do not belong to him. In fact, the plan of the plays are in general taken from other authors, as well as some of the situations. The plot of one of the best, and the particular incidents, are stolen, we can give it no softer name, from Wycherley. The person who has read the Gentleman Dancing Master, cannot be long at a loss for the origin of 'Who's Afraid ;' and the Disguise, one of the best pieces, in this motely collection, is too nearly allied to 'She Wou'd and She Wou'd not' to be allowed the merit of novelty. Indeed, if we except some personal satire, as in the Musico, and a little of that licentious wit arising from a double meaning, we shall not find any thing which we can properly appropriate to our author. If he chuses to claim the language in general, we may allow his claim, without adding greatly to his merit.

Those who have read the whole of the Preface to these plays,

* * *Not worthy to be thrown, &c.*] This alludes to the Oriental custom of throwing handfuls of a small coin called, among other names, *nisar*, to the populace at public entertainments, and upon other occasions of festivity, as marriage processions, and the like : the eager multitude caught the falling gift in cloths stretched on sticks for the purpose, which they named *teckhm*. A gatherer of such coin was called *nisar cheen*. We read, that it was not uncommon for economists to purchase bad money before hand, for such purposes.

may attribute our disapprobation to the author's insinuations. Indeed he directly charges Reviewers with being influenced by bribes. To such general and anonymous slander we can give with propriety no reply ; but, while we feel a little indignation at the man, we have not suffered it to influence our account of the author. If one new character, one scene worked up with spirit or ability, or one well-arranged plot, not to be traced in other authors, be discovered in this volume, we will plead guilty to his charge. Since he must be conscious of these imperfections ; since the authors to whom he has been indebted, though not generally known, have been distinguished, whatever becomes of his other merits, his prudence should have prevented him from such attacks as are neither warranted by good manners, or supported by justice.

We need not enter into any particular detail of the plots of these plays, or the different characters. If the author, in his labours for private and provincial theatres, has acquired any reputation, he has acted injudiciously *at this time*, in appealing to the world, at large.

We shall transcribe, as a specimen, the author's satire, on some modern dramatic poets. It is taken from the Prologue to *One and All*, and may, at least be better separated, without mutilation, than any other passage. It is between the Author, and the Knight and Lady at whose house the play is supposed to be acted.

' *Sir Peter*. I thought the stage was like a looking-glass, in which men might see their vices and foibles, and learn to correct them.

' *Spatter-wit*. That's old stuff from Horace and Shakespear.—But give me the poet, who, as the latter says of the players,—"outsteps the modesty of nature."—For instance now,—It is mighty easy, you know, to make a man talk intelligibly—if he's a taylor, he may discourse about his goose—if an undertaker, he may bury people in his own way.—But what say you to a character that talks half a dozen different tongues, all blended together, like Cerberus's triple voice, without one single line of either sense or language?—That, now, is the effort of a great genius.

' *Sir Peter*. I would advise you then, for the future, to take your characters from the parliament-house ; for damn me if I have not sat there a whole day, and heard twenty members talk just as you have described—

' *Spatter-wit*. Then, again, as to stage-effect and situation.—You are a justice of the peace, and I am Hugh Spatter-wit, esq. an humble admirer of the Muses.—What great matter is it to botch up a conversation between us two, when we know each other perfectly ? But if, at the time I am announced to you, the servant (an ignorant booby) happens to call me Mr.

Batter-

Batter-it, and you immediately take me for the constable of the next parish; and when I am thinking about Melpomene the Muse, you suppose it to be Mol Pominy the cook-maid, come to swear a rape—what a field of variety it displays, and what an opportunity for equivoque and pun, and every thing that is laughable and interesting!

* *Lady.* Pray, Mr. Spatter-wit, for what reason have you introduced your deaf and dumb man in this little piece?—He does not seem necessary to the plot.

* *Spatter-wit.* And for that very reason he is there—to open the other characters, which is far better done by an extraneous person, than by the others who are necessary to the catastrophe; by that means a variety is brought forward, that keeps alive the eye of the spectator, if his ears are not entertained. It is, in fact, to person, what a pun is with regard to dialogue. For the same reason we always endeavour to surprise, by making the audience expect something diametrically opposite to what is really to happen.—For example, if a hero is announced, we produce a Lilliputian; if it were necessary to bring on a blind man, we should call him Argus.—I have in contemplation an excellent stage situation for a new piece which will come out at one of the winter theatres next season.

* *Lady.* What is it?

* *Spatter-wit.* The piece is an alteration of Shakspear's Henry the Eighth; and as cardinal Wolsey was a remarkably stately, upright prelate, after a long description of his uprightness and dignity, I make him, immediately after his disgrace, walk in—on his head.

* *Sir Peter.* Hey? (*loud*)

* *Lady.* He, he, he! (*laughing*)

* *Spatter-wit.* I thought you would feel it—I knew it would disappoint you—there's the great merit of the thought.—'Tis new, quite new, I believe.

* *Sir Peter.* And shall you make the Cardinal pun, too, Mr. Spatter-wit?

* *Spatter-wit.* Ha, ha, ha! (*laughing*) he does not take the joke.

* *Sir Peter.* Where is it for heaven's sake?

* *Spatter-wit.* Why in the pun, to be sure. Thus, when he is disgraced, he is humbled you know—so he is quite the reverse of what he was before.

* *Sir Peter.* Undoubtedly.

* *Spatter-wit.* To shew it, therefore, by one stroke, like a flash of lightning, I turn him topsy-turvy, which is the greatest alteration possible.

* *Sir Peter.* Wonderful!

* *Lady.* Is not it a charming situation?

* *Sir Peter.* For those that like it.

* *Spatter-wit.* Won't it have a good effect?

* *Sir Peter.* To make the actor sick, I believe.

* *Spatter-wit.* Ha, ha, ha!—Very good, sir Peter!—very good—bravo!

Imperfect

Imperfect Hints towards a New Edition of Shakespeare, written chiefly in the Year 1782. 4to. 4s. Robson.

THIS elegant author, an enthusiast in favour of Shakspeare, had for a long time anxiously wished for a splendid edition of his works, with ornaments, such as an enlightened nation could properly supply, and which would not disgrace its most favoured bard. He consequently received the proposals of messieurs Boydells with great satisfaction, and has now published his own remarks; his end, he says, will be answered, if they 'can give rise to one single new hint, or save any trouble to an enquiring artist.'

He has particularly examined Titus Andronicus, Coriolanus, Taming of the Shrew, Merchant of Venice, Love's Labour Lost, All's Well that Ends Well, Comedy of Errors, Troilus and Cressida, and Midsummer Night's Dream, with a design of pointing out those situations which furnish proper subjects for prints; and has subjoined to each play, those which have already been designed to illustrate it. He has even descended so far as to describe the vignettes, the head and tail pieces, with which each of these plays may be decorated. His remarks frequently discover a correct taste, and a lively imagination: the figures, in his descriptions, are often grouped with skill, and the picturesque situations are well chosen.

We need not enlarge on his remarks in general; they may probably furnish many hints for the new edition, at least for the inferior decorations. We shall, therefore, recommend the pamphlet before us to the notice of those engaged in this splendid design, and add a specimen of our author's Hints.

'How pleasingly might an artist amuse himself, in painting fancy portraits of Shakespeare, (at whole length) as at the time of composing or conceiving some of those various and diversified scenes which have long delighted this nation.—Either at the sombre moment of his gloomy imagination diving into the mysteries of witchery and incantation in the cavern of the weird sisters, and there treading in that circle in which none durst walk but he.—Or when his breast was inflamed with the rapidity of preparation for Bosworth-field, and he was writing (a noble wildness flashing from his eyes) those words, with which Mr. Garrick has so oft electrified not only his attentive audience, but the very actors on the stage: 'Off with his head! so much for Buckingham.'—When fired with young Harry Percy.—Or when indulging his fancy with some of the most pleasing fictions that ever poet feigned of the light Fairies and the dapper Elves.—When composing the prologue to Henry V.—When ruminating on the murder of Duncan—or on those rising spectres which daunt the pale Macbeth.—On the awful magic of Prospero—Or when imagining some of those irresistible ap-

peals to the humane heart, which his own good mind dictated to him, and which none but his own genius could so well express. In designs similar to this last, his features should possess the mild animation of Zoult's metzotinto, with somewhat of that calm elevation which is so well expressed in Mr. Romney's print of Mrs. Yates, in the Tragic Muse. He should have all the magic of the mouth open, which we have seen so well expressed in some Italian pictures; and Milton's dim light should be admitted into a chamber, somewhat resembling a studious cloyster pale. In the whole length of him at Stratford, Mr. Wilton has seated him on the very chair which tradition says, belonged to him; has placed in the chamber some of the old chronicles, of which he was a frequent peruser; has strewn on the table and floor, some MSS. on which are written the names of some of his plays; and has placed in the chamber an antique window of stained glass. Might not a print from this picture be somewhere introduced?

The author apologizes for the frequent introduction of the names of some inferior artists; and it will be proper to transcribe his reasons for the liberty he has taken.

'When I have recommended this, as well as many other of the foregoing prints, it has been, because they were the best that have yet been published. Had I seen (at the time most of the above pages were written) any prospect of an edition coming out, like that of Messrs. Boydells, and the names of such artists as are now announced, it would have made me reject some of those which I have now endeavoured to persuade the reader to look at—still however let those hold their places of merit, 'till replaced by future designs of superior execution:

'Si quid novissi rectius istis,
Candidus imperti; si non, his utere mecum.'

The History of Miss Greville. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed.
Cadell.

THE great object of these volumes is to show, that a first attachment may be weakened at least, if not wholly conquered, by reason and resolution; that gratitude and esteem may afford a solid foundation for matrimonial happiness. The moral is good and salutary; but yet we suspect that our author has limited its utility, by the circumstances and situations which she has painted. Miss Greville loves lord Rivers, who is represented as amiable and deserving. During his absence in America his letters are intercepted by her father; and, from her apparent inattention, he believes, as he is told, that she is engaged to another: from his silence, she concludes that he is inconstant. In this state, her father's pecuniary distresses bring sir Charles Mortimer to her acquaintance. He relieves them in the most delicate manner; assists her by methods that cannot alarm

alarm the nicest sensibility. They are married and happy; when Rivers returns, the impositions they have both experienced are detected. Rivers and Mortimer appear also to have been former friends. In this situation, the extremest delicacy of the heroine, the most generous, unsuspecting confidence of Mortimer, could alone have prevented the most distressing consequences. But the lady rises superior to her former passion: she sees the vast debt of gratitude due to Mortimer; and feels what mode of conduct virtue should dictate to his wife. The event is of course a happy one, except in the death of Rivers, who is killed in America.

The defect, if any in the moral, is, we think, in the excellence of sir Charles Mortimer's character. It is drawn so nicely, that it appears scarcely to be the representative of a human being: of course the events cannot be, with propriety, applied in common life. We mean chiefly to allude to those traits of exquisite sensibility, and of the most pointed decorum, in circumstances, where the feelings are so acutely affected as, in general, to destroy the attention requisite for the support of a strictly proper conduct. If this be a failing on one side, we ought to reflect, on the other, that the difficulties are accumulated; and, if extraordinary virtues seem to be required, the situations are far from common ones. In the usual circumstances, our author's position may be just; yet what shall we say to the following passage? perhaps it will be supposed, that the feelings of the lady have hurried away the caution of the moralist.

'In truth, my friend, I am persuaded, by fatal experience, that the vivacity of our first impressions can never be equalled by any succeeding ones; that, in the heart which has once tenderly, truly loved, the enthusiasm of affection can never be a second time renewed; and that a soul, long depressed by affliction, can scarcely be reanimated by love.'

The following passage is most beautiful and just: it is of great importance to unite integrity and sensibility.

'Your heart, my beloved friend, will supply, at this moment, the truest picture of my feelings during that "tender walk." Ah, Maria! how many are the sources of elegant pleasure which sensibility awakens in the human breast! nor is it only the source of our purest pleasures, it is often that also of our most exalted virtues, by that quick perception of what is right and proper, and that disgust at what is mean and base, which it creates.'

These volumes are truly valuable: if we do not meet with new characters, we find the most salutary lessons: if we are not entertained with numerous adventures, we see frequent proofs of judicious reflection; we read the decisions of a well informed mind, and listen to the dictates of a well regulated heart.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 145.)

IT is with some regret, that we are obliged to relinquish our design of giving an abstract of M. Sennebier's two *Mémoires* on Meteorology. They are together too copious and extensive, and separately would be imperfect. There is also some probability of their becoming objects of our consideration as distinct publications. The information which we have collected for our present Number, relates to some subjects which have lately occurred in our usual labours, viz. magnetism and electricity.

Mess. Delabre and Quinquet have lately been engaged in some experiments, for the purpose of examining if iron, subjected to sublimation and revivification in different chemical processes, constantly acquired magnetic properties. Indeed the great object seems to have been the imitation of some ferruginous lavas discovered in the old volcanos of Volvic, Puy de Dome, and Mont d'Or. Some of these imitations Mr. Delabre, who was the chief chemist engaged in the pursuits, had already presented to the Academy of Sciences; and his present aim was to add more, and to raise his superstructure on facts. We shall not particularly describe his experiments; they were made by fusing one part of sea-salt with two parts of calcined green vitriol. This mixture, when melted, is blackish, the iron is in part revived; and the mass, from the description, resembles the heavy black compact lavas. On the surface of the mass a little vacuity was formed, and it gave the iron room to sublime. It there assumed the form of the glassy iron (*fer speculaire*), that kind of lava which breaks with bright shining spots, like polished steel. M. Delabre was not probably aware that this experiment had already occurred in a glass-house; and the appearance is described by M. Faujas de St. Fond, in his *Minéralogie des Volcans*. The crucible he saw at Roane, in the cabinet of M. Passenge; and he tells us that it affected the magnetic needle, and resembled the lava of Volvic*. The lava, described No. 37†, is a still more curious one of a similar kind; but we must return to our author.

In the next experiment, the melted mass, which was the result of the former trial, was again heated in a crucible covered with a test, supported on a piece of rock crystal; the latter broke, and was found to be covered with several small crystals of iron, which disturbed a nice magnetic needle. They resembled what Faujas de St. Fond described in No. 87, just mentioned, which was also magnetic. The mass was ferruginous, and a true artificial magnet: the iron was partly crystallized, and partly scorified; its magnetic poles were the surface and the base: the latter the north, and the former the south pole. The fragments of the crucible were covered with sublimate, and appeared to be magnetic.

* *Minéralogie des Volcans*, p. 231.† *Ibid.* p. 233.

In the third experiment, the materials were similar to the first, and the fire was more violent; the crucible, covered with the sublimations, was magnetic: the mass, when warm, strongly so; though the force of the magnetism was much diminished on cooling. Our author's reflections on these subjects are not, we think, of so much consequence as his facts. The magnetic fluid resides, as he supposes, in the air, and the melted matters, when heated in a crucible, are exposed to successive action of different currents of atmospheric air, which continually rise through the fire and supports the ignition. These currents either deposit the magnetic fluid on bodies capable of containing it, or 'modify the different bodies they meet with, in proportion to their affinity to it.' Many objections may be made to this opinion; but, as the author seems to have purposely inserted the word 'collision,' we are not very certain whether he means a chemical or a mechanical effect.

The magnetism produced by a smart stroke on a body, in a particular direction, seems to be in consequence only of the mechanical effect: there is certainly no more of a chemical change produced by it, than on the electrical cylinder in rubbing. It has been supposed that the shocks in striking bodies, or letting them fall on the ground, produce a kind of friction; and it is found that this will not only render steel magnetic, but wax and glass electrical.

The author, who has chiefly attended to this mode of producing electricity, is M. Liphardt, whose memoir is published in M. Crell's *Chemical Annals*. The experiments on the electricity of melting chocolate, have been already circulated in the newspapers; and we should not have mentioned his memoir if it had not been intimately connected with our subject, and contained some curious facts which were not published at the same time.

The electricity of bodies, warm and cold, has been often observed to vary: this quality also varies, when bodies change their states from solid to fluid, and from thence to vapour, or the contrary. The electricity of melted chocolate was, in some respects, new; and it was extraordinary, because it was represented to be produced without friction. On examination, however, this was not strictly true. Chocolate melted only, discovered no electricity; when put into the mould, and shaken to spread it uniformly, it appears to be electrical. The shaking is undoubtedly a kind of friction; and if it were not for this action, the friction of the cocoa, in pounding, is considerable. If this shock then produced the effect, our author properly observes that it should produce a similar one on bodies, capable of being excited by friction. He consequently tried first a stick of wax, and dropping it on a table from the height of eight inches, and repeating the experiment twenty times, he found that it attracted bits of silk. Copal, striking on the table, became electrical; but, in this instance, the affinity to magnetism was very observable: it became electrical only when dropped on its end. Sulphur gave the same appear-

ances; but M. Liphardt suspects, we know not for what reason, that if sulphur was dropped in any other direction, the effect would be the same. He avoided trying it because of the brittleness of the sulphur. With glass, at first, he could not succeed, but when he dropped the stopper of a decanter on the table it became electrical.

Melted talc, on cooling, is said to have become electrical like chocolate; and the author seems to lean to the opinion of M. Delabre, just now mentioned, that no fusion can occur without a collision of the particles of fire, or of the particles of the body on each other. In particular he remarks, that the electricity of cooling sulphur appeared when there was a tendency to crystallization on the surface, which could not happen, he supposes, without some friction: we think it would have been better if he had tried the experiment with care. He might have found some results not unlike what he observed on the cooling of chocolate.

The electrical experiments which have been made in France, by M. Charles (we suppose, the adventurous aeronaut, who is eager to triumph over every element), have excited much attention. We are happy to be able to give an account of them, from the relation of one of the eye-witnesses. Mess. de Morveau, Sage, de la Metherie, and the Duc de Chaulnes, with some other distinguished philosophers, were present. The battery consisted of one hundred square feet of glass; and the effects were considerable, though the weather was unfavourable.

An iron wire, No. 16, of seven feet in length was melted, and even a greater length might have been fused; but this experiment presented some remarkable appearances. When the stroke had a given force, the wire melted and fell in globules: with a greater force, it was reduced to blackish scoriæ, attracted by the load-stone, and much smoke arose from it. When the battery was highly charged, and the wire was not long, it was sublimed in yellowish flakes, not capable of being attracted by the load-stone, and very light; in reality it became a true ochre. We wish that this experiment had been repeated in highly phlogisticated air, to have ascertained whether the calx contained as much pure air as when it had been calcined in the usual method; and, if it had, to have furnished means of enquiring from whence it could have acquired it. The experiment was, indeed, repeated in inflammable air, and we shall soon mention it. The colour of the calx of iron, after these experiments, was a white, with a little tendency to redness. It was not, therefore, completely calcined.

A silver wire, No. 10, of a foot in length, was melted and fell in little globules: when the battery was moderately charged with a smarter shock it was calcined, and sublimed in white smoke. The colour of the spark was a bluish white, and the sound very loud.

A gold wire of the same bulk, and four inches in length, melted and fell in globules when the charge was not great. When

When the batteries were highly charged, it was calcined and dissipated in smoke of a yellow purple colour. If the wire was confined in paper, the paper was of the same colour. The sound was very smart, and the flame was tinged with a yellow orange hue.

A very thin lamina of platina, about $\frac{5}{8}$ of an inch long, and $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch wide, which M. Morveau procured, received a very powerful stroke: it disappeared in smoke, with a very violent sound. Another little plate, furnished by M. Sage, disappeared in the same manner. The colour of the flame was a bluish white.

A copper wire was also reduced to vapour: the noise was very smart, and the flame of a greenish white. A little plate of brass, eight inches long and $\frac{1}{6}$ of an inch wide, also disappeared in vapour. The sound was less violent, and the flame was white. Zinc detonated very much like brass.

Experiments were also made with this formidable battery, in inflammable, fixed, and nitrous airs, as well as in a vacuum.

In inflammable air, an iron wire, No. 16, five inches long, was fused by the electrical stroke. The receiver was filled with smoke; and, on opening the valve, a hissing was perceived, which shewed that there had been some absorption. It is remarkable, that if the receiver is left undisturbed, a blackish powder attaches itself to the bulb of the apparatus within, and by degrees extends into little threads. These threads seem at first to diverge; and we should suspect that some electrical power was excited by the explosion: at last, however, they fell down like the branches of weeping willows, and gradually separated in dust. On opening the valves they fall immediately. The powder was attracted by the magnet; and, in its chemical qualities, seemed to be a true æthiops. The experiment was frequently repeated with the same result.

In fixed air the wire was fused, and the receiver, as before, filled with smoke. A part of the powder fell on the plate, the rest fixed on the bulb; but the threads were neither so long nor so numerous as in the former experiment. The powder was a true æthiops. The events were similar in nitrous air.

In a vacuum, which was so perfect, that the receiver contained only $\frac{1}{18}$ of air, a gold wire of an inch long was calcined. It was at least calcined in part; for when it was wrapped in paper, and the plate covered with paper, the purple colour was communicated, as in the former experiment. Some globules of gold, however, remained. A rabbit and a guinea-pig were killed by the shock; but a cat, though struck senseless, was recovered; and the recovery seemed to be assisted by giving slighter shocks.

We must now turn from these violent and sudden changes to others more slow, and not less interesting. The heat of mineral waters has been variously explained, though with little satisfaction. Among the rest the experiment of Lemery, where an artificial composition, buried in the earth, gradually ferments and takes fire, has been adduced as a cause of the internal heat of

some parts of the earth. There is one fact which has greatly contributed to perplex the question, and to raise additional difficulties in the way of the enquirer, which is, that the heat of springs, in the same situation, is generally uniform. Since we began to look on heat as a substance, we have been led to consider every uniform degree of it as owing to the escape of heat from a latent to a sensible state; and this doctrine will particularly apply to uniform heats, since no substance can give out more than it has received, and the only requisite will be, that the escape is slow and constant. Some observations of M. Hassenfratz have suggested these remarks. They are, in many respects, important; so that we shall mention them particularly. This gentleman, whose name has more than once occurred in our mineralogical details, is sub-inspector of the mines of France; and, by order of his government, has visited the mines of Germany, Hungary, and Transilvania. He was astonished, after having heard of the uniform heat of the earth, to find, that in some galleries, the thermometer rose eight degrees beyond its height in the neighbouring ones, though there was a constant current of air between them. Even in the same gallery, at different parts, there was nearly as great a difference. In the mines of Schemnitz and Kremnitz, there was sometimes a greater variation. To enquire into the cause, he particularly examined these mines.

In the course of his enquiry, he found on their sides efflorescences of vitriol of iron; and that kind of white vitriol which, from its slender filaments, is called haliotricum. The heat was greatest where these efflorescences appeared; and it was greater in proportion to the quickness of the succession of the efflorescence after the first crop was taken away. The efflorescence was not owing to deposition from fluids filtered from the earth, or from different reservoirs; for not only would cold have been the consequence of this operation, but it was found that it was of the same nature with the mineral on which it was discovered. It was, therefore, the effect of a decomposition of the pyrites. On examining different pyrites he found that the spontaneous decomposition arose from a small proportion of sulphur: those which do not admit of any change from the air, contain much more sulphur than the others. The proper proportion to admit of decomposition is, when the sulphur is to the iron, as 54.15 to 45.75. In proportion also as the decomposition continues, that of sulphur lessens; and when the pyrites comes to the state of martial vitriol, it is to the iron as 44.9 to 55.1. This decomposition, he finds, alters the goodness of the air, and increases the heat of the galleries; but the air of mines, when the circulation is free, and no decomposition is going on, scarcely differs in goodness from common air. M. Hassenfratz modestly suggests, that this decomposition may be the cause of the heat of mineral waters, and particularly mentions that, between Kremnitz and Schemnitz, two springs of hot water are found. We think that the discovery is of great importance;

portance; and, from the steadiness of the heat, very likely to be the true cause. We mean not that the heat of every mineral water is owing to the decomposition of pyrites, but other minerals admit of spontaneous decomposition, and the degree of heat may be greater from some than from others. At the same time, the vast masses of these bodies in the bowels of the earth, will account for the length of time these waters are poured out with the same heat. The degree in these mines was 29° of Reaumur, about 98° of Fahrenheit; and, if we make allowance for the heat being communicated by so imperfect a conductor as air, and in the gallery where the air circulated, we may easily suppose that in a confined place, and when communicated by water, it may arise as high as the highest heat of mineral waters.

We have had occasion to mention, that M. Berthollet had analysed the volatile alkali, and found it to be composed of inflammable and phlogisticated airs. This opinion has not been universally admitted, and we know not whether the Memoir of M. Hauffman, which is in some respects inaccurate, will add to its force. We may however observe, that he has succeeded in compounding the volatile alkali from these gasses; and, at least, in the preparation of the materials with which he made the experiment, he seems to have been very exact. The way in which it was formed was to add very pure nitrous air in a pneumatic apparatus with mercury, to a phlogisticated precipitate of iron. This air is presently absorbed, and changes the colour of the precipitate; the process is repeated many times, till the precipitate is wholly dephlogisticated. At the end of the operation, only a little phlogisticated air remains. The volatile alkali produced in the process, in the form of alkaline air, is evident from its smell, and by the ammoniacal fumes which are evident on putting a straw, moistened with smoking nitrous acid, into the vapour. If the precipitate be prepared from a dissolution of the iron in nitrous acid, the volatile alkali will not be produced.

He supposes that the alkali is formed in this way: the phlogisticated precipitate of iron attracts the vital air from the nitrous air, while the phlogiston of the æthiops unites with the other portion of the nitrous air, and produces the volatile alkali. This we suspect to be the opinion of our author; for it is neither accurately detailed or carefully printed. Mr. Kirwan, he observes, was on the borders of the discovery; for he remarked the alkaline odour, which remained after having mixed hepatic with nitrous air, and the absorption was completed.

The author adds some other remarks which we are unable to abridge: indeed we should have declined mentioning his Memoir, if it had not appeared to announce what might prove an important discovery; and, in this tract, even errors are sometimes useful in pointing out the right path. To discover the true composition of volatile alkali, might lead us to that of fixed alkali, and probably afford much useful information respecting different arts.

Essais

Essais sur l'Hygrometrie. Par Horace-Benedict de Saussure, Professeur de Philosophie a Geneve. 8vo. Neuchatel.

WE have more than once had occasion to mention these Essays with great applause; and it has been owing to various disappointments, that we have not already examined them more particularly. The irregular importation of foreign books, for a time, prevented us from giving that account, which was the result only of an accurate and attentive examination: our various and urgent labours have since delayed our article; but the importance of the work itself, the increasing consequence of meteorology, and above all the influence which it has on the language of philosophers, for the degrees of Saussure's hygrometer are now almost as commonly mentioned as the degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer: all these considerations, we say, have urged us to postpone every consideration which might interfere with the review of these Essays. That which relates to the hygrometer, as it is the most urgent, must be the first and principal object of our attention.

The difficulties which were supposed to prevent us from bringing hygrometers to any degree of perfection, were, the improbability of fixing two points, at either extremity of the scale, which should be constant; the uncertainty of finding a body which would expand uniformly, with a given degree of moisture; and the almost impossibility of being able to distinguish the effect of dryness, because it is usually attended with heat, which, when animal fibres are employed, would operate in an opposite direction. These difficulties are not, perhaps, entirely overcome; but they are so much lessened, that the errors are of little importance. We must give, however, the philosophical principles of our author's plan: the mechanical construction must be learned from the work, and its attendant plate; though the latter is executed so imperfectly, that it adds little to the clearness of the description.

The substance which he employed was hair; the hair need not exceed a foot in length, but it should be chosen with care, and taken from a healthy person, and not tortured by the modern fashionable mode of ornament. Its organization should be uninjured. It is cleaned from the only matter which adheres to it, by boiling in an alkaline lixivium; and our author adds some rules, by which the operator may judge whether it has been injured in the operation. He seems to think the lighter hair preferable to the black. When in a perfect state it should be clean, soft, polished, transparent, and strait.

When these hairs were adapted to the hygrometer, which, like the usual instruments of this kind, shows the changes in their length by the motion of a needle on a circle or a quadrant, it was necessary to fix the extreme points of dryness and moisture. M. Saussure first endeavoured to ascertain the latter. He put the instrument in a receiver on a plate, whose surface was covered with

with water, and frequently moistened the interior surface of the receiver with a damp sponge. In this situation the ballancing weight stretches the hair sufficiently; for, after being in the lixivium, it is sometimes a little curled. In this state, in some instances, it continues to extend during a period of more than six hours; in others, after extending to a certain point, it seems again to shorten: these are proofs that its organization has been injured in the operation, or that, in the first instance, the weight is too great. If a change in the weight does not alter this tendency, it is rejected. If, after elongating, it retracts during its stay in the moist air, it is equally unfit for its purpose. If at the end of two or three hours it becomes stationary, and after alternately removing it into a drier, and again into the moist air, it points to the same degree, it is generally considered as good. Warm vapour has no more effect than cold; though, in this observation, we believe our author differs from Dr. Robinson, who, on trying the relaxing power of different fluids on the animal solid, and the kind of solid which he used was human hair, found warm water had the greatest power, and next to it cold water. This is an important fact, which cannot be too exactly ascertained.

In these experiments it is not pretended, that the moisture of the air is as great as it will admit of: it is sufficient that it is a constant and uniform degree; and this M. Saussure has found, after a very careful examination. It is probable, indeed, that it is very nearly the greatest that the air will admit of, since, even in the momentary interval in which the hygrometer is exposed that the internal surface may be moistened, the needle begins to move towards dryness. In different states of the air there may be some variation; but the needle shows no sensible difference, on repeating the experiment at different times; and we may therefore conclude that it is constant, particularly, as the extreme moisture of the air in a natural state is somewhat distant from this artificial dampness. We may now add also, that the expansion of the air is probably uniform, as different hygrometers, made with care, correspond in different parts of the scale.

To determine the extreme point of dryness, was a more difficult task. In this attempt it is more probable that our author approximates only to it. His instrument must be carried to the coast of Guinea, and exposed to the harmattan to ascertain it. He mentions that his extreme point, if it does not show that all the moisture which the air holds in solution for that which it contains, as an integrant part, must not be reckoned: but if all the additional moisture is not extracted, still the air is rendered drier than it ever appears when confined. Those, however, who have experienced the extreme dryness of the wind we have just mentioned, or even read of its effects, will wish that the experiment had been tried before the conclusion had been so positively drawn. The common dryness of the air seldom moves the needle beyond the twenty-fifth degree. Our author's method of drying the air was to cover a plate of iron, rolled into a demicylinder,

cylinder, and heated to a red heat, with a powder composed of equal parts of nitre and crude tartar. A detonation ensues, and the iron is in consequence of it covered with a caustic alkali. This is melted, and calcined in a heat gradually increasing, that it may not be too fluid, for an hour. As soon as it is cold enough not to endanger breaking the receiver, it is put into it with the hygrometer and a thermometer, while the external air is carefully excluded. In this state it remains some days: if the instrument inclosed in the receiver is then put out into a warm sun, and any moisture should remain in the air, which the salt cannot attract from it, the moisture will be deposited, and in that separate state the alkali absorbs it. If the hair was properly dried, the alteration which the sun produces will not be observed after the instrument has been brought into a mean temperature. If the hair, shut up with the alkali, shews a tendency to lengthen with cold, and contract with heat; and this tendency continues some days, it is a proof that the instrument is defective. Concentrated oil of vitriol and terra foliata tartari do not show so great a power of attracting moisture from the air, as the calcined alkali.

We have hinted, that the instrument, when made with hair, as a pyrometer, has a different and opposite scale to that which it must have as an hygrometer. Our author examines it with this view. On examination he finds, that a degree of heat produces a change equal to $\frac{1}{17}$ of a degree of the hygrometrical scale, if we suppose that heat dilates the hair, according to the same law, through the whole scale. The variations are inconsiderable, except in very nice experiments; and, in a future essay, the author shows what allowance is to be made for them. About the fifth degree of M. Saussure's scale, the needle is stationary on increasing the heat: the changes in the pyrometer are equal, and opposed to the changes of the hygrometer.

As we have often spoken of the author's scale, we must here observe that it begins at 0, which is the period of extreme dryness; and consists of 100 degrees; and the 100th is the period of extreme humidity.

We have enlarged much on this first essay, because we think it a very important one, in a branch of philosophy where we had little that was certain; and in a branch too, where an approach to certainty was scarcely expected. We have already observed, that it has influenced the language of philosophers, who have received the improvement with the distinction which it merits.

The second essay is a very curious and important one. It is entitled the Theory of Hygrometry; but it contains much just reasoning, and a series of well-conducted experiments. It is not enough to know that the air is moist, it is necessary to distinguish the causes of its humidity; and where they all act at the same time, to ascertain the effects of each. The author begins then with a short examination of the different methods employed to measure the quantity of water which the air contains, and
adds

adds a general view of the theory which explains the affinity of water to air, and to other bodies which it penetrates. He afterwards examines the range of the hygrometer, and explains the connection of the different causes which influence the state of the air, with the variations of that instrument, in order to ascertain the real and absolute quantity of water in the air.

We need not particularly examine the hygrometers made on principles different from those of our author: it is still less necessary to enlarge on the general theory of the affinity of water to air, and the bodies which it penetrates. A necessary distinction must, however, be mentioned. Though the power by which the hair attracts moisture from the air be a chemical affinity, yet it is different from the usual affinities of this kind. The power is weakened by the moisture absorbed, and while the salt can attract more moisture, and the air can part with more to a more powerful agent, it will remain inclosed without alteration. This M. Saussure calls hydrometrical affinity; but it is not without its parallel in chemistry: the attraction which acids have for earths and metals seems to be somewhat similar.

In examining the range of the hygrometer, M. Saussure mentions its great sensibility, and the means of even increasing it, if necessary; the uniformity of the dilatations, and the circumstances in which the uniformity is somewhat disturbed; the little changes which occur in the state of the instrument, and the means of keeping it in proper order. Even in the greatest changes his hygrometer becomes stationary, at its proper point, in twelve or fifteen minutes; and the needle sometimes, in sudden variations, moves as fast as the second-hand of a watch. The heat of the body in approaching it, if the breath is held, makes no alteration: the heat and the perspiration seem to counter-balance each other.

The next subject of enquiry is, whether other vapours have any effect on the hygrometer: æther and oil of turpentine seemed to have a slight influence. Æther, when highly rectified, made the needle move many degrees towards the term of dryness: our author does not account for this appearance very satisfactorily. We now know that the æther, in evaporating, forms inflammable air, and that for this purpose water is necessary, since it appears either to be a component part, or so essential to its formation, that it attracts humidity even from the air which surrounds burning coals. The other variations, arose probably from the water that accompanied the fluids which were tried.

In the former essay the author shewed the connection between the heat and the motion of the needle, and pointed out how much might be allowed for its action. This was the pyrometrical effect of heat: another correction is, however, necessary, which he calls the hydrometrical correction. It consists in the allowance to be made for that quantity of vapour which the heat enables the air to dissolve, and consequently to be no longer sensible by means of this instrument. The correction which arises
from

from this source is comprized in tables adapted for the hair-hygrometer only. The use of these tables is very extensive, and they will render the former pyrometrical correction unnecessary.

The fifth chapter of this Essay is a very important one: the object of it is, to ascertain the connection between the degrees of the hygrometer, and the quantity of water contained in the air. If this could be exactly fixed, the instrument would be perfect: our author only approaches towards it; but even the approach, in a subject so doubtful, deserves our regard. For this purpose he dries the air, to bring the hygrometer to its extreme point; he next introduces some water into the receiver, and when the needle has reached the other extremity, examines the quantity lost. This experiment requires many precautions, which Mr. Saussure very properly points out. In his first experiments, from eleven to twelve grains of water were found requisite for each cubic foot of air, to bring the hygrometer from 8° or 10° , to extreme humidity, when the thermometer was at 14° or 15° *. The author apologizes for the great difference between the result of his experiments, and from those of M. Lambert; but adds, with great reason, that this philosopher did not attend to the dew which formed on the vessel: as much water as he mentions may be evaporated, but so much is not retained in the air. Indeed, after the hygrometer came to this point, M. Saussure always found a dew begin to form on the glass, nor is the air injured by the operation of drying: similar results followed when the experiment was made on air, taken from a dry spot, and not subjected to any previous process. It is probable, on the other hand, that free air is saturated with less water than confined air; since the air of a small vessel dissolved more water in proportion than that of a large one.

After having ascertained the little quantity of water dissolved in a cubic foot of air, M. Saussure found it necessary, in order to make the proper subdivisions, to procure larger vessels; and he added to his apparatus a barometer; but, as this instrument was inclosed in the vessel, it could only measure the elasticity of the air, and it is therefore, in this work, styled a manometer. In these trials, some things occurred which would not have been readily suspected, though the same events happened in the experiments of signor Andriani. In a temperature of 15° (of his own thermometer) the elasticity of the air increased $\frac{3}{4}$, when the hygrometer passed from 0 to 80; that is, dry air is less elastic than moist. The mercury rose $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch; and in the converse of the experiment, the event was uniform; and in all the variations, though the quantity was different in some degree, the elasticity appeared to increase with the damp. Our author examined the

* Saussure describes his thermometer, by saying it is divided into eighty parts; but does not say where his scale begins or ends. In one place, however, he describes the freezing point at 0; and in another tells us, that 15° answers to 66° of Fahrenheit. On comparing a scale of this kind with Fahrenheit's, we find, that the other termination must be at boiling water.

successive progress of the change. We cannot follow him particularly, but may observe in general, that every grain of water absorbed in a cubic foot of air, becomes an elastic fluid, capable of supporting above $\frac{1}{24}$ of an inch of mercury; while its density is to that of air as three to four. On the other hand, a single grain of water in a cubic foot of air, makes an impression on the hygrometer equal to 7.23 degrees. The experiment was repeated with variations; but we regret that the extent of our article will not admit of mentioning them. A table of the results of the different experiments is subjoined. M. Saussure has carefully calculated the quantities of water corresponding to every ten degrees of the hygrometer, and to a cubic foot of air; but this subject he resumes in another chapter.

To render his instrument completely useful, it was necessary to show that it possessed similar properties when the thermometer was below frost, especially since the evaporation of ice had been denied, and by some supposed to be only a mechanical abrasion by the friction of the wind. On trying the experiment in a manner that appears to us unexceptionable, he found that ice was subject to a true evaporation, and converted by cold into an elastic vapour, which increased the elasticity of the air, and acted on the hair exactly as water in vapour would have done. The hygrometrical laws, therefore, hold in every state of the atmosphere. We have enlarged to a greater extent on this work, because we have met with no one which has so far extended the boundaries of science since the days of Newton. Much, however, still remains, which we shall examine in a future article: we cannot conclude without mentioning, that these hygrometers are made, we believe, only at Geneva. They may be procured of M. Paul of that city, and they are of two kinds. The beam and the portable hygrometers: the former cost about 3l. the portable ones 1l. 15s. with a box. A little addition* is made if accompanied by a thermometer mounted on metal.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

Kingseston Hill. A Poem. The Second Edition. By Thomas Hobhouse, A. M. 4to. 1s. 6d. Forbes.

This pleasing little poem, which we examined in our Fifty-eighth Volume, p. 475, is considerably altered and improved. The lines which we pointed out as exceptionable are amended; and the whole is, we think, elegant and poetical. We shall subjoin the improved version.

‘Should all his prospects end in splendid self,
And all his friendship in his little self;—
To Nature’s beauteous bowers he vainly hies;
Her suns grow paler, and her bloom all flies;
’Till his last hour extend the desp’rate plan,
And sceptick fury close what vice began.’

* 15 Francs, about 12s. 6d.

The Riddle. By the late unhappy George-Robert Fitzgerald, Esq.
With Notes. By W. Bingley. 4to. 1s. Jameson.

It was some time since fashionable, in private parties, to describe any indifferent object in indecent terms; and, when the delicacy of the ladies was alarmed, to explain the subject, and show that the description was perfectly harmless. This is a similar attempt, in which the verses are truly worthy of the design; the former are as insipid and weak as the latter is trifling and ridiculous. The notes are perfectly consistent. They would have disgraced any work, where a beam of common sense darted through the 'dark profound.'

Miscellaneous Poems, by W. Gillum. To which is added a Farce, called What will the World say? 12mo. 3s. Lane.

To adopt Mr. Gillum's expression in the farce, his 'wit is generally of the forced sort, like cherries in January;' and his poetical fire may be likened to the sun at the same period, emitting a faint gleam, without any genial warmth, or brilliant rays. In the little epigram, where the force of the whole depends on a point, a pun, or a jeu de mots, he succeeds pretty well; but, in greater attempts, he generally fails. In his Prologues and Epilogues, which custom has allowed to be formed on the model of Bayes' attempts, in the same line he flashes and dashes with some spirit; and strings his Series of Epigrams with tolerable success. We shall select our specimen from the Prologue to Mahomet, spoken at Mr. Fector's private theatre.

'The merchant, "once so smug upon the mart,"
 Neglects his invoices, to learn his part;
 Scorning to listen to his friends persuading,
 To quit the play-bills for the bills of lading.
 Th' equestrian buck, unvarying in his tone,
 Staunch to the turf—to him it is a throne:
 Roars in king Richard; and is ne'er at loss
 When he exclaims, "my kingdom for a horse."

The half-pay hero feels the want of cash;
 And truly says, "who steals my purse steals trash."
 Fat cooks too, fry with passion for the stage;
 Whose greasy minds broil with tragedian rage.
 In comedy, tho' fraught with laugh and fun,
 Yet all is chaste, and nothing's overdone.
 Hitting each palate, they are always boasting
 They never felt or fear'd the critic's roasting.
 That from their efforts ev'ry one might learn
 To do their parts, e'en to a very turn.'

Of the farce we shall, in pity, say nothing. It was never acted, and shall continue inviolate; secure, *so far*, from the critic's hiss or frown.

Poetical

Poetical Essays on Moral Subjects, &c. by a Youth. 8vo. 1s. 6d.
Buckland.

These Essays bear evident marks that the author is not arrived at the age of manhood—or discretion.

Female Virtues: a Poem. 4to. 2s. Cadell.

This performance, likewise, appears to be written by a youth; but by one possessed of a stronger and more cultivated mind.

‘How happy were the bard, who trembling sees,
With fearful diffidence, the low’ring storm
Whose fury may o’erwhelm this offspring weak
Of youthful fancy immature; how blest!
Could he indulge the fond, presumptive thought,
That not the chilling frown of cold neglect,
Nor critic rage severe, would fiercely blast
His budding laurels, and destroy the hopes
Of rising emulation! yet whate’er
His fate, with joy and conscious pride he feels
That not to gloss the loathsome form of vice
With specious words, and draw the tearful sigh
From blushing innocence, he dar’d to raise
His honest lay: but ’neath the lively form
Of visionary tales to blazen wide
The charms of female virtue.’

Far be it from us to nip the early bud of genius that hereafter may ripen into fruit. The author’s design is entitled to approbation, and the execution far from contemptible.

Poetical Tour in the Years 1784, 1785, and 1786. 8vo. 4s.
sewed. Robson.

These Poems, as the author asserts, appear to have been the effusions of momentary impressions, and written for amusement: He likewise says, ‘they have undergone no correction, but such as served to beguile the solitary hours of a post-chaise, or an inn.’ The want of correctness is, however, seldom visible.—They evidently discover the traits of an elegant and cultivated mind, but they are not marked by any force of expression, or originality of thought. They may be read without disgust, possibly with pleasure; but they will not enchant the mind, or fix any deep impressions upon it. They consist chiefly of Odes, Sonnets, and Epistles; and Imitations from foreign writers, mostly Italian. The following lines, written at Ermenonville, the well-known seat of Rousseau’s friend, the marquis de Girardin, will give an idea of the manner in which the generality of these poems is executed.

‘From proud Chantilly turns my sated eye,
Enough I’ve seen of art’s triumphant reign;
With joy O nature! unto thee I fly,
And thy exhaustless stores behold again.

VOL. LXIV. Sept. 1787.

Q

And

And now to those sequest' red scenes I haste,
 Lone heaths, brown hills, blue lakes, and shadowy dells,
 Where in wild grandeur mid the sandy waste
 With thee thy Girardin enraptur'd dwells.
 Scornful of all that wealth and power bestow,
 There let me sit me beneath the poplar gloom,
 Indulge the finer sense of sacred woe,
 And honor Condé's palace less than Rousseau's tomb !'

The Story of Le Fevre, from the Works of Mr. Sterne. Put into Verse by Jane Timbury. 8vo. 1s. Jameson.

That the excellent story of Le Fevre, told in almost the same words as the original, should so entirely lose all its power over the mind, as we experienced in perusing the present performance, is really surprising. The wrong side of tapestry, to which bad translations are not unaptly compared, gives as good and as favourable an idea of the figures on the right, as the present travestie, (by no means intended as such) does of Sterne's most happy production. The well-known passage of the *Recording Angel*, will serve as an instance, though every page might be adduced in confirmation of our remark.

' We too must bear him up—at least we'll try,
 The Major said—by G—he shall not die.

The accusing spirit, here reluctant soar'd
 To Heaven's bright chanc'ry with the offending word :
 But doubting, if to deem the oath a sin,
 Blush'd as he gave the accusation in ;
 While that angelic being, who's assign'd
 T' record the various actions of mankind,
 Scarce let the sentence from his pen appear,
 Blotting it out for ever with a tear.'

Reflect, writers ! on the manner of treating your subject—what different requisites are necessary for prose and poetic composition—how much depends on the expression ! A vulgar word, or an ill-chosen arrangement of words, will frequently debase the most elevated sentiments ; while a happy disposition will as often conceal their meanness, and give them an air of grandeur and novelty, to which in reality they had no pretension.

Ode on General Elliot's Return from Gibraltar. By A. Seward. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

Britain is undoubtedly highly indebted to this worthy general,

' Who hid, in glory's blaze, her livid stain,
 Impress'd by rash attempts, irresolute and vain.'

If those attempts had been *rash* and *irresolute*, the merit of repelling them must have been inconsiderable, and needed not so wide an effulgence to be concealed in. We will not, however, cavil at trifles—or a trifle.—The subject is a noble one, and by the testimony of Horace—

' ——— Dignum laude virum,
 Musa velat mori.'

But

But if the General's own actions do not immortalize him, Miss Seward's present performance will contribute but little towards his *Apotheosis*.

Inkle and Yarico: an Opera, in Three Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal in the Hay-Market. Written by George Colman, Junior. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons.

The conduct of Inkle, in the well-known story from which this opera is taken, appeared so inhuman and mean, that we wondered at the attempt to make him the hero of a modern play. Mr. Colman has preserved the general character of the young merchant; but, with great address, has rendered it, on the whole, an amiable one, though at the expence of the history. Inkle doubts and hesitates; but the tenderness of Yarico, the genuine and disinterested affection of the amiable maid, gain a complete victory. If there is any deficiency in the author's management, it is in raising the character of Inkle's attendant too high. Trudge brings an American girl, with a Polish name, and who, in one of the songs, seems to have a Polish lover, from the continent; but *he* rejects, with the warmest indignation, the overtures of the planter who offered to purchase her. This mode of behaviour greatly lessens the merit of the cautious, plodding, calculating merchant. The scene is a short one, and we shall transcribe it.

‘ *Enter First Planter.*

‘ *Plant.* Harkee, young man! Is that young Indian of your's going to our market?

‘ *Trudge.* Not she—she never went to market in all her life.

‘ *Plant.* I mean is she for our sale of slaves? our black fair?

‘ *Trudge.* A black fair! Ha! ha! ha! You hold it on a brown green, I suppose.

‘ *Plant.* She's your slave, I take it?

‘ *Trudge.* Yes; and I'm her humble servant, I take it.

‘ *Plant.* Aye, aye, natural enough at sea.—But at how much do you value her?

‘ *Trudge.* Just as much as she has fav'd me—My own life.

‘ *Plant.* Pshaw! you mean to sell her?

‘ *Trudge.* (*Staring*). Zounds! what a devil of a fellow! Sell Wows!—my poor, dear, dingy wife!

Plant. Come, come, I've heard your story from the ship.—Don't let's haggle; I'll bid as fair as any trader amongst us: but no tricks upon travellers, young man, to raise your price.—Your wife, indeed! Why, she's no Christian?

‘ *Trudge.* No; but I am; so I shall do as I'd be done by, master Black-Market; and if you were a good one yourself, you'd know, that fellow-feeling for a poor body who wants your help, is the noblest mark of our religion.—I wouldn't be article'd clerk to such a fellow for the world.

Q 2

‘ *Plant.*

' *Plant.* Hey-day! The booby's in love with her! Why, sure friend, you wou'd not live here with a black?

' *Trudge.* Plague on't, there it is. I shall be laugh'd out of my honesty here.—But you may be jogging friend! I may feel a little queer, perhaps, at shewing her face—but dam'me if ever I do any thing to make me ashamed of shewing my own.

' *Plant.* Why, I tell you, her very complexion—

Trudge. Rot her complexion.—I'll tell you what, Mr. Fair Trader, if your head and heart were to change places, I've a notion you'd be as black in the face as an ink-bottle.

' *Plant.* Pshaw! The fellow's a fool—a rude rascal—he ought to be sent back to the savages again. He's not fit to live among us Christians. [Exit Planter.]

The rest of the plot is of no great importance; it is conducted on the artificial plan of the persons mistaking the business of those they meet, as they are supposed not to have previously known them. If we admit of the means, the design is executed with no inconsiderable address.

The dialogue is lively; but, as may be seen in the specimen transcribed, the wit too often depends on a pun, and an equivoque too obviously sought after. The songs are pleasing: two or three are highly finished, and truly poetical.

The opera has succeeded very well on the stage; and it is no unpleasant companion for an hour in the closet: but we regret that an author who can attract attention by well-drawn characters, and amuse by genuine wit, should aim at the applauses of the gallery by the merit of an insignificant pun.

M E D I C A L, &c.

Observations on a late Publication on Cheltenham Waters. By John Barker. 8vo. Pearson at Birmingham.

Mr. Barker attacks an author, whom he does not name, and of whose work he has only perused one sheet: and he attacks the Critical Reviewers, whose article he could not understand. We find that he thinks us sceptical, and yet that we have principles; that our ideas are confined, though we endeavoured to extend those few which he possessed. Something too occurs about our religion; but this ground is too sacred for a jest; though we must allow that, in belief, our author excels us, for he is much inclined to believe what is impossible.

We read over, in the same evening, a work which praised us, and Mr. Barker's invective: on the whole, we were most pleased with the latter: the author is in earnest; and he is so angry as to have produced some very entertaining passages. If they were on an object of more consequence than ourselves, it would be amusing to follow him very closely; as it is, we shall take up one part only, and this because it relates to science.

' They

‘ They next contend that they are not to be understood by me, because I am so little conversant in chemistry; which is not true. Had the great naturalist Pliny no knowledge of the nature of mineral springs, nor of the causes that produce them, because he did not use chemical experiments? without them, I had clear ideas of the neutral nature of the chief salt in Cheltenham water; and that Short was defective in his notions of this grosser part, though he used chemical experiments to help him in his endeavours to gain a proper knowledge of it. Without them I knew there were sulphureous principles of a very peculiar kind in Bath waters; a matter so much contested: and that Buxton waters are prepared from a natural lime-stone, which mere chemists never dreamt of.’

These are supernatural powers, which the ‘great Pliny’ never ‘dreamt of;’ and (a word in your ear, Mr. Barker,) which he never pretended to. With superior qualifications, it is not necessary to be able to construe Pliny, and with so many more advantageous occupations, it is not very proper to misemploy your precious time in reading him. We were astonished at his skill, particularly about the neutral salt, because he never gave us a hint of its peculiarity, and only referred us for the discovery to Dr. Fothergill. The discovery of lime-stone is equally surprising; for its quantity is not very uncommon, and no one pretends to derive any medical virtues from it. The sulphur is common to the Bath and the Cheltenham waters; and this was discovered in the latter by a kind of sagacity not peculiar to Mr. Barker: in justice to this gentleman we shall preserve the discovery.

‘ — Instead of this pretended knowledge, charged with doubts and disagreements, I have, on the contrary, made it clear, both from the *smell* of the water, and its *effects upon the discharges of the bowels*, that sulphureous particles of some kind are contained in it: and their *high subtilty*, and *great volatility*, as well as of the chalybeate spirit and elastic air, have been also shewn in observations on their great disposition to fly soon off. Now, to say in the face of all this, and a great deal more, that I give little or no information on the real nature of the water, favours a little too much of an assurance that is not commendable. It may not be information in their own way, and such as pleases them; it is, however, experimental in another way, *and the best the subject will admit of.*’

Since our author seems to be nice in observations of this kind, we shall not contend with him: we again own our inferiority, but must be allowed to add some remarks. We have been informed that cyder has this effect in a great degree; and that it renders the flatus, at least, very foetid. Now, since this gentleman is bent on discovery, we have no doubt but that the cyder-drinkers in Herefordshire would gratify him; and we would advise him to go immediately into a cyder country. Perhaps he may discover sulphur in that liquor also: perhaps, for

knowledge has no bounds, he may find that air has been compressed in the apples, is *fixed* by its confinement, and hardened by the pressure into cheese.

We must now leave our author, with thanks for the character of a good critic: in one respect we shall not oppose him: we really will not attempt to put our 'remarks on a level with his writings.' They may, as he observes, be vague, for we own that we have very little inclination to follow him into *his* laboratory.

Medical Remarks on natural, spontaneous, and artificial Evacuation.

By John Anderson, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.

When a man of experience endeavours to instruct the world, from a benevolent principle, and hazards his reputation in the dangerous career of an author, with a design of doing good, we would avoid too minute remarks. Dr. Anderson is neither unacquainted with books, or with practice; but his observations are not always of equal value; and the sources, from which he has drawn instruction, seem occasionally to have misled him. His theory is Boerhaavian; and whatever merit this learned professor may justly claim in other departments, his theory is not connected with it, because his system is compiled from different authors who preceded him.

The first chapter, which contains the Indications to Evacuation, with the Power and Effect of Evacuants, is more exact than many of the others; and the evacuations principally mentioned are, 'by the Stomach—by the Intestines—by Perspiration—by Expectoration—by Urine—by Bile—by the Catamenia—by Semen or Sperma—by Bleeding—by Blistering—by Fontanels or Issues—by Sternutatories and Errhines—by Sialogogues and Masticatories.'

These miscellaneous remarks cannot be easily abridged; nor can we with any propriety separate the chaff from the corn. To speak of urine as a medicine, is somewhat disgusting; and bile seems not to be easily digestible by the *reader*. Let us select, however, what our author has observed.

'Boerhaave found a drop or grain of the extract of the gall of an eel a most powerful succedaneum in defect of human bile, and particularly in dissolving curdled milk on the stomach of sucklings.—It would be endless to enumerate all the virtues ascribed to bile, both by ancient and modern writers. I have myself frequently directed the use of it with bitter herb decoction in clysters; and the umbilical region to be fomented with it, for dislodging of worms from the bowels, and with good effect. I have frequently cured the *piora*, or itch, by a liniment composed of bile, oil, sulphur, and nitre.'

The following observation we wish to preserve, as it is of importance; and indeed the entire section, on Evacuation by Issues, contains many just and valuable remarks.

'As I have seldom had occasion to prescribe a dose of physic for a person who happened to have an issue, even though frequently

quently constipated before, I am led to believe an issue is efficacious in obviating habitual costiveness. The stimulating purge is only temporary, and does not radically, or effectually, remove the cause: an issue removes not only the cause of constipation, but also that of laxation.'

The danger of stopping natural discharges the author is well aware of, and he frequently enforces it. We entirely agree with him on this subject, since we have so often seen mischievous consequences ensue, even where the discharge appeared excessive.

An Account of the Culture and Use of the Mangel Wurzel, or Root of Scarcity. Translated from the French of the Abbé De Commerell. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

The botanical name and characters of this plant are not yet ascertained. The name in the title is German, and means, as it is translated, the root of scarcity. The leaves are pleasing, salutary, and useful, as food. The taste is something between spinach and asparagus. The root, in shape, resembles the parsnip, though unlike it in taste. It is easily preserved through the winter; and, even in that state, sends forth leaves. It increases fast, grows to a considerable size, without detracting much from the strength of the soil, and gathering the leaves does not impoverish the root. On the whole, for men, cattle, and horses, it may be employed with advantage. It is now propagating very fast, and will soon spread over the kingdom: its management must be learned in the author's own words.

We cannot highly praise the translation: the following passage is not easily intelligible; and some other parts of the pamphlet are deficient in perspicuity.

'Immediately after this first crop, the ground should be turned up once or twice with the mattock of the roots. In digging the earth this second time, the root should be raised high with a wooden spade, and the surface of the earth should be turned up afresh, so that every root should be cleared for an inch and a half, or two inches: they will then appear as if they were planted in a small basin, of nine or ten inches in diameter. Even a child might easily perform this operation.'

We have little doubt, from the abbé's very particular and judicious account of it, that this root will prove highly useful in this kingdom, as it bears our winters, seemingly, with little injury.

D I V I N I T Y.

Memoirs of the late pious and Rev. Gabriel D'Anville, V. D. M. 2 Vols. Small 8vo. 5s. Bew.

This work relates the adventures of a spiritual Quixote, though of one much inferior to Geoffry Wildgoose, in learning or accomplishments, or without the numerous attendants which accompanied Mr. Grave's hero. Though the title leads

us to expect real memoirs; yet the whole is confessedly fictitious; and the great source of amusement arises from the different kinds of methodistical preaching. These are often highly curious, and, in many instances, copied from living characters. Exaggerated as the style often appears, we well know, that the absurdities exposed in these little volumes may be often heard. The serious and judicious address to the students of Oxford and Cambridge deserves our commendation; and, in justice to the author, we shall conclude our article with some extracts from it.

‘Gentlemen, a zeal for the sacred order now so unhappily prostituted by weak or designing men, a love for my fellow-creatures at large, the preservation of the human intellect, and, may I be permitted to add, your future credit, have induced me to publish what, confiding in the integrity of my motives, I make no apology for sending into the world, or of recommending to your most attentive perusal. If it prevent but one of you from seeking popularity at the expence of reason, conscience, and true religion, or if it snatch but one ignorant person from the horrors of ill-grounded and anti-scriptural despair, I am amply paid. But should it prove a mean of rooting up a sect the most destructive and dangerous that ever disgraced a civilized or even a barbarous nation—a sect which exalts vice to reward and virtue to punishment, and makes the Deity its agent, I shall then consider myself under the hand of Providence, an instrument of public good, and, as reviving a proper sense of an all-merciful, unprejudiced, all-perfect Creator, wish for no greater reward than the luxury of my own feelings.’

Again,

‘Among the middling and lower classes of people, it (suicide) is, I fear, more frequently to be traced to the doctrine and threats of a set of men, some of them in, and others out of the church, who chuse to denominate themselves, in opposition to the parochial clergy, and indeed to every rational dissenter, gospel-preachers, than to any other motive. Their first aim is to inculcate moral turpitude, melancholy and despair; from which they deign not to extricate their followers by the cheering voice of mercy to unfeigned penitence and future amendment, but rather, as denying their possibility, pronounce them consigned to everlasting torment, unless they can work themselves into a belief that they have been arbitrarily elected, before the worlds, to the kingdom of heaven. Thus “the bond of peace and righteousness of life” are intirely negatived; morality and good works, though under the best motive, expressly reprobated; religion and reason held as incompatible with each other; the attributes of the Deity shamelessly trodden under foot—and is it severe or unjust to say that such doctrine, delivered too from the pulpits of the established church, must have stimulated many a trembling ignorant, whose enthusiasm has not proved productive of unsubstantial confidence, to abandon a life embittered with the perpetual dread of everlasting malediction and torment?’

Social

Social Religion exemplified, in an Account of the first Settlement of Christianity in the City of Caerludd. By Matthias Morris. The Fourth Edition. Revised, corrected, and abridged; with Notes, &c. By Edward Williams. 12mo. 2s. 6d. in Boards. Longman.

Three editions of this work have been already printed, we believe, without the author's name. Mr. Williams has now assigned it to its genuine parent, the minister of an independent church at Rowell, in Northamptonshire. Mr. Morris seems to have been a man of good sense and genuine piety. The Calvinism of that period was not of the most liberal kind; and, to its influence, we must ascribe a little of the bigotry, and sometimes the want of charity, which occurs in this volume: but the instances are not very numerous. The object of the work is to trace the origin of the Christian church, its organization, the means of preserving its original spirit and strictness, with some of the deviations to which it has been, or may be exposed. In this edition Mr. Williams has sometimes abridged, and sometimes corrected the language; but he has so carefully abstained from altering the sentiments, that we think it will not be less welcome to Mr. Morris's admirers than the former editions. We own that neither the language nor the substance are sufficiently attractive to induce us to change our plan, so far as to engage in an examination of a fourth edition.

Revealed Religion asserted. By S. Rowles. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ash.

We reviewed this author's Remarks on Dr. Priestley's Letter to Dr. Horsley, in our Fifty-eighth volume, p. 77. and we find that we have, without any intention, given him some offence, by reprehending his want of caution. We are sorry that, of a miscellaneous work like those Remarks, or these animadversions, where the objects which are noticed have not been mentioned in our Journal, we can only give a general opinion. We were much pleased with the former; and, in these before us, we perceive many marks of good sense, just reasoning, and accurate discrimination; but, consistently with our plan, or our limits, we cannot engage in any particular examination. Mr. Rowles may, however, be assured, that we intended, by our expressions, no disrespect.

The opinions of Dr. Priestley, which our author now controverts, are on 'Eternal Punishments; the Doctrine of Calvin; the nature of God and the Human Soul; and the Atonement of Christ.' His observations are shrewd and ingenious; his language pointed and sarcastic. On the whole, we think Mr. Rowles an antagonist, with whom it is no disgrace to Dr. Priestley to contend.

We shall select a specimen, where the author urges his objection with great force. We select it partly as a specimen of our author's manner.

"The brain," you say, "besides its vibrating power, has superadded to it a percipient or sentient power likewise." (v. i. p. 91.)

p. 91.) However crudely this be expressed, it lays your Babel all in ruins, which you have taken so much pains to erect, and fully justifies my denial of your materiality of man. An argument may be soon lost by granting too much to an opponent. If the percipient and sentient power be superadded to an organized system of matter, as you teach; then, what is thus superadded cannot be matter, nor a modification of it, nor the result of organization, nor life that animates the frame. And, what is there left?—1. It cannot be matter; because it is superadded to it.—2. It cannot be a modification of it; because however matter may be placed, or however its form or size may be varied, such change or changes cannot add any thing to its native constitution.—3. It is not proper to say that the result of any given combination of matter is a superaddition to it; because what naturally and necessarily follows from any peculiar arrangement of material particles, cannot be said to be superadded to it. Nor—4. Will your language agree to animal life; because you yourself say that this percipient and sentient power is superadded to “the vibrating power of the brain.” You know, sir, there are no vibrations of the brain prior to life, nor after death.—This vibrating power of the brain therefore supposes life; and, consequently, the soul, which is superadded, must be distinct, and may exist apart from it. Thus you see, sir, your own authority confounds your argument, and confirms mine.’

We own that we have selected it also to give a specimen of the author’s want of caution, in pushing his argument too far. If he had asked what was superadded, matter or spirit? he might have carried his own conclusion, in his own words, with very little difficulty. But he has now laid himself open to an obvious answer. Man is not only a living, but a sentient being; and, while one *secondary quality*, viz. vibrations, give life, another, *superadded*, may give it other properties: and, after all these questions, the perceptive power may be referred to a quality by a materialist.

A Summary View and Explanation of the Writings of the Prophets.
By John Smith, D. D. 2s. 6d. in Boards. Elliot.

This familiar explanation of the prophetic writings, from Isaiah to Malachi, was designed to accompany a Gaelic translation of the prophecies, and is now published in English, as it may be useful to those who cannot purchase the larger commentaries, or have no time to peruse them. We think that it is executed with great propriety; and the explanations are supported by good authorities. Though we may occasionally differ in opinion from Dr. Smith, yet it is just to add, that his sentiments on these subjects have the sanction of great names.

The Preliminary Observations are on the prophetic style, and general rules for understanding it. They are plain, simple, and well adapted to those for whose use they are designed. There

is some regularity, however, in the metaphors used by the prophets, which our author thinks may be owing to 'some rules taught in the prophetic schools.'—We knew not before that prophecy was taught as a science, nor does the history of the prophets support this opinion. Inspiration, we are informed, was a kind of phrenzy: 'that which the Lord sayeth to me, that will I speak,' was the language of one of the prophets; and, to study prophecy, is nearly as absurd as to be mad with reason and method. Of our author's manner, we shall select a specimen from the seventh chapter of Isaiah, because that important and extraordinary prophecy has been the subject of our observations, both in our last Volume, p. 437, and in p. 74, of the present.

'The king of Judah and the royal family being in the utmost consternation, on receiving accounts of the invasion of the kings of Syria and Israel, the prophet is sent to assure them, that God would make good his promises to David and his house; so that, although they might be corrected, they could not be destroyed while these remained to be accomplished. This is the subject of the 7th, 8th, and beginning of the 9th chapters. The 7th begins with an account of the occasion of the prophecy (1—3), and then follows (4—9) a prediction of the ill-success of the Israelites and Syrians against Judah. The particular period in which Ephraim or Israel should be no more a nation is foretold; which prophecy was punctually fulfilled by the total depopulation of their country by Esarhaddon, who gleaned away all the remains that had been left by former conquerors. From this period the ten tribes were no longer a different people, but were confounded with the people of Judah in the captivity, and with them comprehended ever since in the general name of Jews. But as the object of this consolation was distant, the prophet (10—16) gives Ahaz the prospect of a nearer deliverance, by telling him that, by the time a child that might be born of a young woman, then a virgin, should come to the age of distinguishing between good and evil, that is, in a few years, the present enemies of Judah should be destroyed, and there should be peace in the land; of which, such delicate food as butter and honey was an emblem.

'This prophecy, however, is introduced with so much solemnity, the circumstances of it so peculiarly marked, and the name of the child so emphatic, that, however applicable the terms might be to the case immediately in view, they must be allowed to refer chiefly to the great Deliverer, who was afterwards to be born of a virgin; and who, in the sequel of this very prophecy (viii. 8), is characterised as Lord or Prince of the land of Judah.—We must always remember, that it is the manner of this prophet to connect temporal and spiritual deliverances together, and that frequently the view of the latter, rushing powerfully on his mind, absorbs, as it were, every thought of the former.'

A Fw.

A Future State discovered by Reason. A Sermon preached in the Cathedral of Peterborough. By the Rev. John Weddred. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

Mr. Weddred attacks the Unitarians from the pulpit; and he not only dictates ex cathedrâ, but he publishes his sermon; and, as an author, he may be opposed, though as a preacher he was safe. It is one of the principal objects of the Christian dispensation, according to the modern Unitarians, to teach clearly and incontrovertibly the doctrine of a resurrection and a future state; but, if this state is 'discovered by reason,' the Gospel had no object, and Christ 'died in vain.' To this absurdity Mr. Weddred endeavours to drive the Unitarians, though we think with little success. Every thinking man, in every age, must reasonably *suspect* that there *may* be a future state; but, like every ancient philosopher, he would at times doubt; and his greatest confidence would be tinged with hesitation. From partial quotations, and imperfect extracts, the ancients may appear confident; but, from the general tenor of all their writings, their certainty is only momentary, and their belief subject to occasional changes. To ascertain this doubtful subject, and to reveal the doctrine of a future state, was a nodus Deo dignus: so far we can cheerfully agree with Dr. Priestley, without thinking that the appearance of the contest is materially changed. Mr. Weddred's language is neat and perspicuous; but his arguments are common and unsatisfactory.

The Influence of the present Pursuits in Learning as they affect Religion, considered in a Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, on Commencement-Sunday, July 2, 1786. By William Purkis, D. D. F. R. S. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

We have not less admired the sound sense, and accurate discrimination, conspicuous in this Sermon, than the energy and purity of the style; equally distant from the rugged force of the last age, and the flippant elegance of some modern compositions. The author's text is from Coloss. ii. 8. 'Beware lest any man spoil you through philosophy and vain deceit, after the traditions of men, after the rudiments of the world, and not after Christ.'

The modes of our present pursuits in learning, so far as they affect religion, are examined: they are either, first, a philosophical plan of reducing the whole of our being into a system of natural effects; secondly, arguing away those parts of Scripture which we cannot explain; and, thirdly, under the garb of toleration, growing indifferent to religion. Dr. Purkis endeavours to stem this torrent with his whole force; and we think that he only wants attention to obtain success. Before the victory is complete, one thing else remains to be done; and we think the task not difficult: it is to show that what we cannot explain in philosophy, even in the most improved period of our enquiries, is scarcely less than what, to our conceptions, is inexplicable
in

in religion; and that in the one, faith is almost as necessary as in the other. To explain the animal œconomy, the physiologist gains very little in denying the existence of an immaterial principle. We shall select a short part of Dr. Purkis' conclusion.

' If we now draw our observations to a point it will appear:—they who aim to mark the limits of knowledge, and the boundaries within which each branch of science is confined, are doing an essential service to the cause of truth and religion. They prevent much of that uncertainty and delusion which disturbs the minds of the people at large; who without such assistance are "ever learning and never able to come to the knowledge of the truth."—It will also appear, that in our religious enquiries (which we pursue for the good purpose of explaining the Gospel) to indulge conjecture in points not yet revealed, in order to account for difficulties which arise from the nature of the doctrines themselves, tends to unsettle the opinions of the world, and not to improve their faith.—The consequence must be a growing indifference for religious sentiment, and of course a want of principle in all their actions.'

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Histoire Naturelle des Oiseaux, par Le Comte de Buffon, and Les Planches Enluminées, systematically disposed. 4to. 7s. White and Son.

Mr. Pennant's lively manner can render even an Index pleasing. This is indeed a very useful work: the birds, in Buffon's History, are arranged according to Mr. Pennant's System, in the genera; and the references are to Linnæus's *Systema Naturæ*, and Mr. Latham's very accurate Synopsis. The *planches enluminées* are enumerated in the order of their publication; and the references are to Buffon only: a column is left, in which the possessor of the Index may refer them to any system that he may prefer.

The notes are few, and of no great consequence: we shall select our author's reasons for subjoining them.

' The dulness of index-making has been a little abated by a few notes, which I have flung in, relative to the misconceptions, or misinformation, of my quondam friend Le Comte de Buffon. My remarks on a singular observation on the anatomy of the mole, many years before I had the honour of his acquaintance, was the irritating cause of his late resentment against me: but possibly the public will think (if they think it worthy attention) that he has pursued me with too much acrimony.—I select only a few passages, out of the multitude which this too lively writer has furnished me with the means of pointing out to the world. I leave the rest of the task to those who have made the arts of depreciation their study. I myself, thoroughly sensible of my own fallibility, have learned the justice

of bearing the mistakes of fallible man. But, something being due to my own character, I have, in those few instances, retaliated, I trust, his attack.'

The Crown Circuit Assistant: being a Collection of Indictments, Informations, Convictions by Justices, Inquisitions, Pleas, and other Entries in Criminal and Penal Proceedings. By Thomas Dogherty. 8vo. 9s. Uriel.

The precedents collected in this volume are compiled from good authority, and form a system of that branch of special pleading which may be of great service. In the Table at the end, the different crimes are alphabetically arranged; and, to each, the penal statutes which relate to it are correctly pointed out.

The Life of Count Cagliostro. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Hookham.

The lady, who is the count's biographer, attacks, with great virulence, the editor of the *Courier de l'Europe*, and displays much ingenuity in defence of this artful intriguer. It is indeed remarkable that a man of great candour, universal abilities, and the most respectable connections, should be in every country involved in intrigues, and unpleasing disputes, if some mystery were not inseparable from his character; or if he really possessed those qualities, which his biographer displays at so great length. We have already hinted our suspicions, which this narrative confirms, instead of obviating. The author, in many instances, 'overleaps herself': the contradictory accounts in the *Life* add more force to the injurious representations of count Cagliostro's antagonists, than the plausible explanations detract. After a few more defences of this kind, our opinion would be clearly established. If we do *not* consider the count as an injured nobleman, the narrative may be styled both entertaining and instructive; entertaining, to see the various shifts of ingenious dexterity; instructive, as we are enabled by it to guard against similar attempts.

A Treatise on Elementary Air. By Hamilton Kelso, M.D. Small 8vo. No Publisher—or Price.

This little tract is dedicated to the Royal Society, and we are informed that the thanks of the Society were presented to the author. The preface to each successive volume of the *Transactions* explains the nature of the compliment. In this instance it was an easy method of disposing of a paper, one-half of which they probably did not understand, the other they did not believe.

A clear, comprehensive, yet compendious Introduction to Geography and Astronomy. for the Use of Young Ladies. By Eliza Cumyns. 4to. 5s. Dilly.

This work fully supports the promise of its title, and may become an useful assistant to young ladies, so that they may not fall

fall into the error of a lady, who insisted on going to Ireland by Holyhead, because she could not bear to think of trusting herself on the water. There are many little errors in this introduction, but they do not reflect any discredit on Mrs. Cumyns, as they are to be found in the best systems. In the astronomical part, we are surprised that she should have omitted the new planet, the Herschel.

Considerations on the Question lately agitated in Westminster Hall, whether the Proceedings of Commanders in Chief of Fleets and Armies are subject to the Review of the Civil Courts of Law, &c. By William Pulteney, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The cause which has given rise to the question agitated in the present pamphlet, though maintained between two individuals, is, in reality, of great public importance; and, during the time of litigation, it seemed not only to involve the fate of naval officers, but ultimately the safety of the state. The history of the transaction is briefly as follows: In the year 1781, commodore Johnstone, dissatisfied with the conduct of captain Sutton in the action at Port Praya, ordered him to be put in arrest, that he might undergo an enquiry by a court-martial for disobedience of orders. Captain Sutton being afterwards acquitted, on account of the disability of his ship, he commenced an action against commodore Johnstone for a malicious charge and arrest, and obtained a verdict for five thousand pounds damages. The commodore moved for a new trial, the result of which was, that the damages were extended to six thousand pounds. He then moved for an arrest of judgment, on the plea that no such action could lie against a commander in chief; and that if it could, the sentence of a court-martial admitted the *disobedience*, by the *justification* from circumstances, which was sufficient bar to an action for malice. In June 1785, the court of Exchequer determined against arresting the judgment; and the cause, after being argued before the chief justices, and by them reported to the lord chancellor, was referred to the house of lords for a final decision; which was accordingly given on the 22d of May last, in favour of the governor, who died on the 24th, within two hours after he had received accounts of the transaction.

Mr. Pulteney places in a strong light the fatal consequences which might ensue to the public service, should land and sea officers be restrained in their reasonable authority, by the apprehension of incurring suits at law, from those who had been the objects of their discipline. A malicious prosecution of an inferior officer by a commander, may always be distinguished, by the concomitant circumstances, from an accusation founded upon apparent delinquency; and, however the liberal spirit of freedom may revolt at military despotism in the affairs of civil life, yet the act of the legislature, or the verdict of a jury, which should abridge the necessary power of a commander, or

in.

intimidate him from the due exertion of it, would introduce such a remissness of discipline, and disregard of subordination, as must terminate in the utter extinction of military enterprise.

The Speeches of the Judges of the Court of Exchequer, upon granting a new Trial in the Case of Captain Sutton against Commodore Johnstone, &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The opinions of the judges in this cause deserve particularly the attention of naval and military officers, who will thence learn, that no action can be maintained against a commander, for arresting or imprisoning an inferior officer, when he judges, from apparent circumstances, that the latter has been guilty of any disobedience to his orders. Indeed, were commanders not protected by the law, in such a situation, there must be an end of all martial authority.

Letters which passed between Commodore Johnstone and Captain Sutton, in 1781. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale.

These Letters are re-printed from the court-martial trial, to show that commodore Johnstone could not, consistently with a regard for the public service, put captain Sutton upon his trial at Port Praya; and that the captain could not justly complain of the want of indulgence and politeness on the part of the commodore, during the time that he was under arrest.

*Elements of Latin Grammar, for the Use of the Academy at Un-
bridge.* By William Rutherford, D.D. 12mo. 3s. Murray.

The author of these Elements appears to be not only well acquainted with the principles of the Latin language, but to have a peculiar facility of adapting them to the comprehension of youth. In this Grammar the subjects are judiciously arranged; and there is added a Vocabulary to the different declensions and conjugations. The first part only is yet published; but from it we may clearly foresee the utility of the whole when completed.

The Treasury of Wit. By H. Bennet, M.A. 2 Vols. 5s. Dilly.

Amongst the numerous compilations of apophthegms and jests, we know none in which the selection has been made with regard to decency and taste. The present editor informs us that 'not a word will be found in this work that a virgin may not read to a company without either blush, or fear of blushing.' We cannot indeed charge him with direct obscenity; but he certainly has admitted such stories as are not entirely consistent with the above declaration; and, before the work can be relished by modest women, it must be divested of some indelicacies, which have been improperly adopted. The author's Discourse on Wit and Humour is ingenious and sensible.